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AMERICAN ASSOCIATION of COLLEGIATE REGISTRARS



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## AMERICAN ASSOCIATION of COLLEGIATE REGISTRARS

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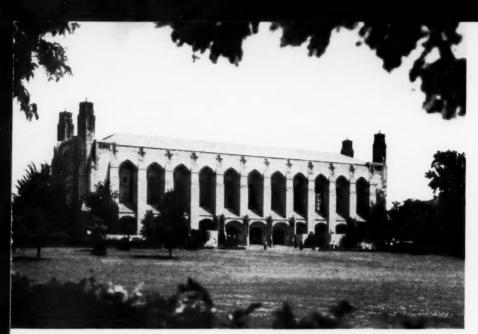
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Deering Library. Northwestern University

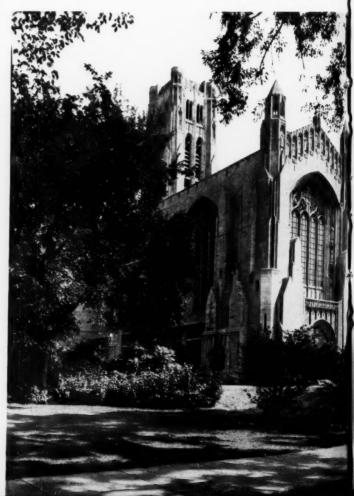
Ninth Convention of the American Association of Collegiate Registrars will find in Chicago opportunities for visiting a variety of institutions of higher learning. Within the city of Chicago and its immediate environs are approximately thirty uni-versities, colleges, and junior colleges.

leges.
Dr. Franklyn Bliss Snyder, President of Northwestern University, will welcome the A.A.C.R. to Chicago in an address scheduled for Tuesday morning. On Wednesday delegates will be guests at a tea given by Northwestern University in Abbott Hall on the Downtown Campus.

The University of Chicago is this year observing its Fiftieth Anniversary and the A.A.C.R. will participate in this observance on Tuesday afternoon. A luncheon on the Chi-

pate in this observance on Tuesday afternoon. A luncheon on the Chicago Campus will conclude with an address by Dr. Frederic Woodward, Director of the Fiftieth Anniversary Celebration. Following a tour of the campus and of the exhibits, tea will be served in Ida Noyes Hall.

The Committee on Local Arrangements and Registration includes representatives of the University of Chicago, Northwestern University, Wheaton College, De Paul University, Wheaton College, De Paul University, Woodrow Wilson Junior College, Lewis Institute, and Loyola University. With these and the many other colleges in the area of Greater Chicago playing host, the April meeting gives promise of being the most successful in the history of the Association.



Rockefeller Memorial Chapel, The University of Chicago

## JOURNAL

of the

## AMERICAN ASSOCIATION of COLLEGIATE REGISTRARS

#### WHO ARE NONRESIDENT STUDENTS?

GERALD O. DYKSTRA AND LILLIAN GREEN DYKSTRA

The problems involved in classifying students as residents or nonresidents are peculiar to state institutions since the privately endowed school charges a flat fee of all students. It is unquestioned that a state school has the power to charge nonresident students a higher tuition in order to compensate it for the opportunity it provides for the education of persons other than its own citizens. If a resident of a sister state desires to avail himself of the educational facilities of another state he should pay an additional fee in order that the taxpayers furnishing the facilities shall not be overburdened by such stranger seeking its advantages and to whom it owes no obligation. If this were not true, taxpayers of a few states, because of excellent equipment or desirable climate, might be burdened grievously by the residents of sister states. Nonresident tuition is nothing short of paying for a courtesy extended by a state which owes no obligation to furnish anything.

Twenty years ago it was an event to migrate from one's home town to the nearest state college; today, with fast and cheap methods of transportation, it is not unusual for a student to seek educational advantages in a far-distant state. Then, after a year's residence in the college town he will allege the establishment of a domicile in order

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to avoid the payment of higher out-of-state tuition fees. Thus, because of this migration and alleged financial need of the student, those charged with passing on questions of residence face increasing complexities, for although many claims of change of domicile are bona fide there are some students who would impose upon the state.

Only a few states give any guidance in their constitutions or statutes as to who are legal residents of a state. The majority of the statutory provisions are concerned only with residence for voting purposes. In the absence of express rules, some boards of trustees have established certain principles as to who shall be considered legal residents but except for these guides those charged with determining who shall be assessed what tuition must rely upon the general common law rules of domicile. There is a dearth of cases on the subject as the amounts involved are small and the difference between the two tuitions does not warrant expensive litigation. However, there is some guidance from cases involving the rights of students to vote in local elections.

#### GENERAL RULES OF DOMICILE

It is a well established principle of law that every person has at all times one domicile and no one may have more than one at a time. An individual may change his domicile any number of times throughout his lifetime so long as certain factors are present. On the other hand, although he has only one domicile he may have any number of residences. As the court stated in Wheeler v. Burgess, 93 S.W.(2)351, 263 Ky. 693 (1936), "President Roosevelt has a residence in Warm Springs, Georgia, a residence in the White House in Washington, a summer residence at Campobello in the Canadian province of New Brunswick, and a residence at Hyde Park, New York, and this last one is his domicile."

Methods of Acquiring Domicile—There are three methods of acquiring domicile: (1) by origin, (2) by choice, (3) by operation of law.

Domicile of origin is that assigned to every child at the time of its birth and thus is involuntary. If the child is legitimate, the domicile of the father is assigned to it; if the child is posthumous, the domicile assigned is that of the mother at the time of the child's birth.

The first domicile of every individual is one of origin and of which he has only one during his lifetime, but it may be relinquished by one having legal capacity in favor of a new domicile which may be relinquished in favor of subsequent domiciles. It is this voluntary acquisition of a new domicile which is referred to as acquiring a domicile by choice.

To acquire a domicile by choice it is necessary that the person (1) be present in the new dwelling place, (2) have an intention to make it his permanent home and (3) have no present intention to have a home at the former domicile. It is not necessary that all these factors exist when the person takes up the new residence, but it is essential that they must, at some time, exist concurrently before a domicile is established. After once establishing the domicile it is not necessary that all of the factors continue to concur at all times—that is, the individual need not reside always in the same place but he may be absent therefrom and still retain his domicile.

Acquisition of domicile by operation of law is, for the most part, consequential in that it follows that of another. For example, the domicile of the wife and minor children follow that of the husband and father and changes as his changes. This rule is based on the theory that he is the head of the family and, in all normal cases, the wife and minor children have their domiciles with him.

The residence and intention, essential to the acquisition of a domicile by choice, are unimportant here as domicile by operation of law is assigned to the individual regardless of his will and whether or not he is living in the place assigned.

Burden of Proof and Presumptions—The burden of proof falls upon the one alleging domicile and in assuming this burden his evidence must be sufficient to rebut and overcome certain presumptions and bring his case within other legal principles recognized in the law of domicile.

Some of these principles and presumptions are as follows:

- 1. Every person has at all times one domicile.
- 2. No person has more than one domicile at a time.
- 3. A person may have any number of residences at one time.
- 4. The place where a person lives is presumed to be the place of domicile until facts establish the contrary.
- 5. The domicile of origin remains until another is chosen or assigned by operation of law.
- 6. In general, it requires stronger proof to show the acquisition of a domicile of choice in derogation of a domicile of origin than it does to show the substitution of one domicile of choice for another of choice.

7. Domicile once acquired, continues, notwithstanding temporary ab-

sence, however long continued.

 If the intention of indefinitely residing in a place exists, a residence in pursuance of that intention, however short, will establish a domicile.

- 9. To establish a domicile of choice the following factors must be present: (1) legal capacity to choose; (2) choice must be made of one's own free will; (3) residence; (4) an intention to relinquish the old domicile in favor of the new.
- 10. A change of residence for purposes of education does not generally establish a new domicile.
- 11. The ownership of real estate and payment of taxes thereon in a place not coupled with residence therein is of no value in proving domicile.
- 12. Proof of domicile does not depend upon any particular fact but upon whether all the facts and circumstances taken together tend to establish domicile.
- 13. Declarations made at the time of change of residence are evidence of a permanent change of domicile, but a person cannot, by his own declarations, make out a case for himself, for acts are said to be more important than words.

14. Engaging in business and voting in a particular place are evi-

dence of domicile, though not conclusive.

15. On marriage, the wife takes the domicile the husband has at that time and thereafter, in all normal cases, hers follows his.

16. If the wife lives apart from her husband without being guilty of desertion and the living apart is due to his fault (desertion, etc.) she may acquire a separate domicile.

- 17. Upon the termination of the marriage in any way the wife may acquire a new domicile but until she does so she retains the domicile she had at the time of the termination of the marriage relation.
- 18. A minor child, in normal circumstances, lacks legal capacity to acquire a domicile of choice but his legal residence follows that of his father.
- 19. In the case of divorce or separation of parents, a minor child's domicile is that of the parent into whose custody it has been legally given; if there has been no legal fixing of custody, its domicile is that of the parent with whom it lives, but if it lives with neither, it retains the father's domicile.
- 20. If a minor child's father dies and no guardian is appointed the child has the same domicile as the mother and changes with hers.
- 21. If both parents of a minor child die and no guardian is appointed

the minor's domicile follows that of the grandparent with whom he lives.

- 22. A minor's domicile does not follow that of relatives other than his father, mother, and grandparents (natural guardians) unless such relative has been legally appointed his guardian or has adopted the child.
- 23. If a guardian is appointed he may change a child's domicile by establishing its home within, but not without, the state in which he is appointed.
- 24. A minor child, emancipated by circumstances, may acquire a domicile of choice.
- 25. A military or naval man retains his domicile in the state of legal residence at the time of his appointment and may not, during such service, acquire domicile at the place where stationed, although his family is present, because he exercises no volition in the selection.

Proof of Residence and Intent—Since domicile depends on fact and intent, one seeking to establish it must prove satisfactorily residence (meaning physical presence) in the new place with the intention of making it his domicile. The former is easily ascertained but the latter gives rise to a complexity of problems. As stated in Kaplan v. Kuhn, 11 Ohio Dec. 321 (1901) "The fact that the whole matter turns upon the animus intention, is what invests these cases with peculiar difficulty. The cardinal fact being mental, it is hard to discover, and liable to misconstruction and dispute. It is provable in two ways: (1) by the testimony of the individual himself; (2) inferentially or inductively by the proof of other facts, physical and external, which may indicate the mind of the person. It would be unsafe and unwise to rely implicitly on testimony of the first class in all cases, for manifest reasons. The second class opens up the widest possible range of testimony, going into the person's whole life and all of its conditions and circumstances. We must look to the acts and declarations, family relations, business pursuit and vocation in life, mode of life, means, fortune, earning capacity, conduct, habits, disposition, age, prospects, residence, lapse of time, voting and payment of taxes, and read these facts in the light of their own declarations."

It is even possible that the surrounding circumstances will prove an intention different than that alleged by the individual. When one has acquired a domicile in one place he does not lose it by mere residence elsewhere without the intention to make the new place of residence a domicile and this was the principle advanced in the

recent case of Texas v. Florida, 59 S.Ct. 563, 306 U.S. 398 (1939) wherein Texas sought to prove that the late Edward H. R. Green retained his Texas domicile and that that state was entitled to levy death taxes as against the conflicting claims of the states of Massachusetts, New York, and Florida. However, it was finally determined by the United States Supreme Court that Green died domiciled in Massachusetts although he had always expressed the intention of retaining his Texas domicile and had never expressed an intention to make any other place his legal residence. The court reached this conclusion by pointing out that although his own statement of intention was of importance, yet, if the facts indicated an intention different from that stated, he would be deemed to have intended a change whether or not he admitted such an intention. Specifically, the court said: "Residence in fact, coupled with the purpose to make the place of residence one's home, are the essential elements of domicile. While one's statements may supply evidence of the intention requisite to establish domicile at a given place of residence, they cannot supply the fact of residence there; and they are of slight weight when they conflict with the fact. This is more so where, as here, decedent's declarations are shown to have been inspired by the desire to establish a nominal residence for tax purposes, different from his actual residence in fact. In such circumstances the actual fact as to the place of residence and decedent's real attitude and intention with respect to it as disclosed by his entire course of conduct are the controlling factors in ascertaining his domicile. When one intends the facts to which the law attaches consequences, he must abide the consequences whether intended or not."

The facts in the instant case which outweighed Green's expressed intention were that after 1914 "he was never identified in fact with any place of residence in Texas, and there was nothing in his life to connect him with a Texas home other than his frequent statements that his legal residence was in Texas. Whatever floating intention Green may have had after 1911 to return to Texas and to make his home there, it is plain that it receded into the background after his mother's death and had completely vanished when he began to build up his extensive estate at Round Hills in Massachusetts. When he had established himself there, all the circumstances of his life indicated that his real attitude and intention, with respect to his residence there, were to make it his principal home or abiding place to the exclusion

of others. This is clearly indicated by the fact that it was the place most associated with his family history, by the scale on which he built, by his assembling there the furnishings and objects closely associated with his earlier homes and with his family life, and by centering there all the activities related to his chief interests—his mechanical and scientific experiments, his development of radio and aviation, and his efforts to preserve records and mementoes of the whaling industry with which his mother's family had been associated. He spent more time there than at any other place, evidently curtailing his stays only to avoid the possible danger of being subjected to Massachusetts taxation. His conception of legal residence or domicile as a mental state whereby he could obtain political advantages and freedom from taxation does not weight against this conclusion. He could not elect to make his home in one place in point of interest and attachment and for the general purposes of life, and in another, where he in fact had no residence, for the purpose of taxation."

Effect of Voting—Voting in a particular place is not conclusive evidence of domicile therein. As the court stated in Livermore v. Farmington, 74 Me. 154 (1882) "The fact of voting in a town, while of importance as bearing on the question of settlement, is by no means conclusive. The vote may be without right and fraudulent. It may be through mistake on the part of the voter as to his legal rights. The fraud or the mistake may be that of the voter or of the officers of the town or both. It is obvious that the fact of voting in a place is not and cannot be conclusive of the fact of residence. It is not binding on the town contesting his settlement. It is simply a fact, with other facts in the case, to be weighed by the jury, and their conclusion is binding."

Emancipated Minors—The general rule is that a minor is incapable of changing his domicile and acquiring one of choice during his minority. The reason for this rule is that a minor is a person under the power and authority of another and so possesses no right to choose a domicile for himself.

Emancipation results: (1) by law—when the minor reaches majority; (2) by the consent of the parent before majority; (3) by circumstances—the death of all natural guardians of the child before his majority.

There is a diversity of opinion as to whether a minor, emancipated by consent of the parent, may acquire a domicile of choice before becoming of age. The majority and better rule appears to be that he cannot acquire a domicile of choice for the reason that the whole purpose of emancipation by consent of the parent is to free the parent from financial responsibility and to place this burden upon the infant, but this does not give him the status of an adult for all purposes. As stated in the early case of Taunton v. Plymouth, 15 Mass. 203, "But it (emancipation) did not give him any political or municipal rights which do not belong by law to minors."

Where the emancipation of the minor is not by the consent of the parent but by the operation of circumstances, as a result of the father, mother, and grandparents all being deceased and there is no guardian, the principle ordinarily followed is that the infant is free to acquire a

domicile of choice if he has reached years of discretion.

District of Columbia and Federal W.P.A. Camps—In recent years there have been an increasing number of problems where the student is the minor child of a father who is employed by the Government in Washington, D.C. or in some branch of the military service. It has long been a principle of the law of domicile that one in the military service does not acquire domicile in the place where stationed, the rule being based on the fact that his presence there is not voluntary and so he retains his last domicile before his entry into the service.

In Sweeney v. Dist. of Columbia, 113 F. (2) 25 (1940), the court pointed out that one who goes to the District of Columbia to accept private employment or to engage in private business would undoubtedly acquire a domicile in the District; so also, one who goes to the District to accept federal employment might acquire a domicile but, in the latter instance, the presumption is that he does not acquire domicile and this is true whether the work is a result of election or appointment. It must be remembered that it is merely a presumption that he has not relinquished state domicile and may be overcome by adequate proof. The court stated "We think that one who comes to the District and remains to render service to the Government which requires his presence here, may retain his domicile in the state from which he comes until the service terminates unless he gives clear evidence of his intention to forego his state allegiance."

In the case of Schweitzer v. Suser, 190 A. 89 (1936) it was held that men employed by the federal government and living in a Works Progress Administration camp did not, by being resident there, acquire a domicile at the situs of the camp since there was no intent to make

that place their domicile.

#### APPLICABILITY OF GENERAL RULES OF DOMICILE TO STUDENTS

Since states do not ordinarily pass laws specifically governing the acquisition of domicile by students, this issue, when it arises, is determined in accordance with the rules applicable to other persons generally. Not only is this true where the student is an adult, but also where he is a minor for, in the latter case, his domicile, in normal instances, will be that of his father and in determining the domicile of the parent to ascertain that of the child the general rules of domicile govern.

The presumption is against a student acquiring domicile in a place or state where the institution of learning is situated for although his residence is there it is but for a limited purpose. In explaining the reason for this presumption, the court, in Goben v. Murrell, 190 S.W. 986, 195 Mo. App. 104 (1916), stated "The same kind of residence (except in some cases as to length of time) necessary to make a legal voter will qualify a person to hold office. Would one suppose that mere students are eligible to the offices at the locality of the school? There are municipalities in which schools are located, where the students outnumber the citizens proper. It certainly would strike one as extraordinary to learn that it was in the power of these nontaxpaying sojourners to wrest the city or county government from the voice and hand of the permanent citizens."

However, a student, other than a minor, can acquire a domicile by choice in the college community while he is attending college but, because of the presumption to the contrary, greater evidence is needed to establish it and he must show a bona fide intention to make the college town his domicile by the presentation of extraneous circumstances which have no connection with his residence in the community as a student.

What these extraneous circumstances may be were enumerated by the court in Seibold v. Wahl, 159 N.W. 546 (1916) as follows: "If the student has a family of his own and removes the same to the college town and supports them there, or if being separated from his father's family and earning his way wholly or substantially, he removes to a college town these are persuasive circumstances more or less conclusive tending to show an acquirement of a voting residence there; if, on the other hand, he have a father or mother living, who maintains a family residence in another town, to which residence the student returns in vacation time, and if such parent supports the student wholly

or substantially, these are quite persuasive circumstances tending to show that there has been no change of voting residence, especially if the student registers or describes himself as of such family residence. Other circumstances, such as the age of the student, the fact, if it is a fact, that he had already been put in the world earning his own living, or that he has already had a voting residence at some place other than the parental home, will be entitled to weight in determining the question. No rule can be laid down which will at once determine every case. Each case must depend upon its own facts."

It may be added that another circumstance which should be given some consideration today is whether the student is registered with the Selective Service Draft Board in the college community or elsewhere.

Perhaps one of the best means of ascertaining a student's bona fide intention is that suggested in Chomeau v. Roth 72 S.W. 997 (1934) where the fact of intention to choose the new domicile was tested by inquiring if the former domicile had been actually abandoned. In that case, the position of the students involved was unique in that they were in training for the ministry and after three years or more of instruction would be sent throughout the world and none had the intention to return to their former homes, whereas ordinarily college students do not so emphatically abandon their former residences when entering upon their studies. That the court considered this distinction pertinent is understood from the following language: "Now in this case, when the students entered the seminary, they at least came, so there was evidence to show, with the fixed intention of not resuming their respective residences at their former homes after graduation. Upon enrolling at the seminary they knew only that they were abandoning their former residences, and that they would reside at the seminary, not permanently, but for an indefinite time, depending upon the promptness with which they might complete the course, and upon whether they might subsequently take the post graduate course. The abandonment of the former residence is the important factor; and the necessity of ultimate removal from the seminary should not affect the result. If, as the evidence shows, upon matriculation at the seminary the students abandoned their former residences, entering the school with the fixed intention of not returning to their original homes permanently, are they to be disfranchised thenceforth, until they acquire a residence after graduation? We think not." Contrast this situation with that of the ordinary college student. Many times a student will declare that it is his intention to be domiciled in the college town or state and

yet he spends his vacations in the former domicile; or, in the case of sickness or other disruptions to his college course, immediately returns to the former place; or, even after graduation if he cannot secure a position immediately he does not remain in the college town or state but returns to his former domicile in this interval during which he is seeking employment. In the light of these natural tendencies can it be said that the ordinary college student has really abandoned his former domicile? Until there is such a preponderance of evidence as will show such abandonment, it cannot be said that the necessary intention to make a new domicile in the college community exists.

### CONSTITUTIONAL PROVISIONS, STATUTORY AND ADMINISTRATIVE RULES IN RE STUDENTS' DOMICILES

State constitutions and statutes contain few provisions specifically applicable to the domiciliary status of students thus leaving the administrative boards of the universities and colleges to compile their own rules, which they do in accord with the general rules of domicile

and their state's specific rules governing electors.

The One-Year Rule—A person making a domicile of choice in another state accomplishes this as soon as factum and intent concur, yet, because of special statutes defining who shall be a qualified elector, he may not vote until he has been domiciled therein for a specified time, usually one year, although for practically all other purposes he acquired domicile there on the moment he entered the state with the intention of making it his permanent abode. Undoubtedly, the basis of this type of statute is to make certain that the individual is a bona fide legal resident of the state before he enjoys the privilege of elective franchise. For the same reason, states which define the meaning of the term "nonresident" student in their constitutions or statutes, state that they are those persons who have not resided, or, in the case of minors, whose parents have not resided, in the state for a period comparable to the period required of electors.

How should this provision end? For one year prior to the student's original matriculation in the university or for one year next preced-

ing the date of any proposed registration?

Likewise, where there are no constitutional or statutory provisions defining who shall be considered a nonresident student, governing boards have adopted the so-called one-year rule, but their rulings also are in conflict as to whether the period of legal residence should be one year before the original enrolment or the current semester.

Which rule should prevail? The authors are of the opinion that the preferable view is that to the effect that to be exempt from nonresident tuition the student must have been domiciled in the state for twelve consecutive months *next* preceding the date of any *proposed* registration.

The curious working of the one-year rule providing that the domicile must have been one year prior to the original enrolment can be illustrated as follows: A, with his minor son B, who is just 17 years of age and has just finished high school, are domiciled in state X. During the summer, A is offered a permanent position in state Y and he and his family move there with the intention of making state Y their domicile. Immediately, because of this intention, which concurs with their physical presence in the state of Y, upon arrival in state Y the domicile of the family is state Y. In a November election A could not vote as he has not been domiciled in the state for the oneyear period required by statutes governing electors, but in an election held a year later, A could vote. Entering son B in the Y state university, the first fall, B would be required to pay nonresident tuition because, under the one-year rule, the family has not possessed its domicile therein for a period of one year at the time of B's entry into the university. Now, how about the fall of B's Sophomore, Junior, and Senior years? Under the rule requiring one year's legal residence before original enrolment, B could never be classified as a legal resident of Y throughout his entire college course, although his father is domiciled in state Y and B is a legal resident for all other purposes except classification at the university. However, if the rule were one year prior to the current semester, then B would be relieved of the payment of nonresident tuition during the following years when, in fact, he is domiciled in state Y.

The Gain or Loss Rule—Some governing boards state as a rule that one, while a student, cannot, by his own conduct, gain a legal residence. This is an inaccuracy as it is a flat contradiction of the rules of domicile. What these boards undoubtedly intend to say is something patterned on the constitutional and statutory provisions which some states have concerning the acquisition or loss of domicile by students for voting purposes, that is, that merely because one is a student shall not affect the question of his domicile at all if there is proof other than, and extraneous to, his studentship at the university. Thus, his domiciliary status is to be determined independently of his presence at, or absence from, the university.

This rule regulating the right to vote is illustrated by the New York Constitution which provides that "for the purpose of voting, no person shall be deemed to have gained or lost a residence by reason of his presence or absence while a student at any seminary of learning." Similarly, the state of Maine provides that "The residence of a student at any seminary of learning shall not entitle him to the right of suffrage in the town where such seminary is located." Such provisions, however, where they have been before the courts for interpretation, have been held not to mean that an adult student is prohibited from acquiring a domicile at the situs of the school but that the proof of such domicile must be by acts independent of his presence there as a student. In in re Goodman, 40 N.E. 769, 146 N.Y. 284 (1895), where the court first passed on the New York provision, the court laid down the rule which, in subsequent New York cases, has been referred to as the rule of the Goodman Case. Therein, the court stated: "We do not mean to say that a voter may not change his legal residence into a new district in spite of the fact that he becomes a student in an institution of learning therein; but the facts to establish such a change must be wholly independent and outside of his presence in the new district as a student, and should be very clear and convincing to overcome the natural presumption."

The application of these constitutional and statutory provisions are summed up succinctly in Chomeau v. Roth, 72 S.W. (2) 997 (1934) which involved the Missouri constitutional provision similar to that of New York. The court said: "The fact that the challenged voters were students is in and of itself not at all decisive of the case. Our Missouri Constitution provides that for the purpose of voting, no person shall be deemed to have gained a residence by reason of his presence, or to have lost it by reason of his absence, while a student of any institution of learning. So the Constitution leaves the student much as it finds him, permitting him either to retain his original residence for voting purposes, or to take up a residence wherever his school is located if he so elects. In other words, mere physical presence at the school is not enough to gain for him a voting residence at the school, or to cause him to lose his existing voting residence at his home; the whole question, as in all similar circumstances, being largely one of intention, but in the light of all the facts and circumstances of the case. A temporary removal for the sole purpose of attending school, without any intention of abandoning his usual residence, and with the fixed intention of returning thereto when his purpose has been accomplished, will not constitute such a change of residence as to entitle the student to vote at his temporary abode. But conversely, an actual residence, coupled with the intention to remain either permanently or for an indefinite time, without any fixed or certain purpose to return to the former place of abode, is sufficient to work a change of domicile."

#### SUMMARY AND RECOMMENDATIONS

It is necessary that those who are charged with determining who are nonresident students must familiarize themselves with the legal principles of domicile in addition to soliciting from the student the true facts on which to make the necessary finding. Even after the committee, or the person charged with this task, has the requisite facts and knowledge of the legal rules, it may find its position difficult because of the pressure by outsiders who are interested in the student and who insist that they are well acquainted with the student and his family and are of the opinion that he should be classified as a resident student. In truth, such persons may know some of the facts but not all of them, and the facts which they do not know may be those which decide the question against the student, and even if they do know the facts they may be unacquainted with the rules of the law of domicile which are applicable. Such pressure from parents, alumni, other faculty members, and townspeople who are friends of the student is unfair to the one in charge of such determinations because these individuals, and committees, sincerely strive for fairness to all students. The policy of the University of California appears to be an admirable solution of this situation for the large institution. An attorney is employed by the University to determine the domiciliary status of students. Expert opinion of this nature may not only prevent injustice and the expense of litigation, but it may bring to the school increased funds by insuring against deceit and circumvention on the part of some students who should pay the nonresident tuition but, in one way or another, have been able to evade doing so. These savings would more than defray the cost of such expert advice where the enrolment is very large and the consequent applications are numerous.

However, where an institution does not feel that it can afford to hire an expert on domicile to decide these questions, those who are charged with the administration of nonresident tuition matters should not be afraid to apply the general principles of domicile and to hew to a line of strict enforcement and, in all doubtful cases, to find the

nonresident tuition applicable.

Under the general principles of domicile, courts place the burden of proof on the one alleging legal residence and thus those who are charged with administration can rightfully require a preponderance of proof and, where this fails in borderline cases, will be supported by the courts in their conclusions that the student is a nonresident if the matter is litigated. This is true whether it be an adult or minor student who raises the question, for, in the latter case, the minor's domicile follows the natural parental guardian and the general rules of domicile apply to the determination of the status of such person. In addition to this general rule of the burden of proof, there is, in the case of students, the presumption against acquisition of domicile in the locality where the school is located and the courts will require even greater proof in cases involving students, all of which is comforting to those charged with passing on domicile when they rule against a student alleging acquisition of a local domicile.

Those passing on domicile of students should keep in mind that domicile is something more than residence. It is local residence in the college community plus intent. In judging this intent one need not give any weight to the payment of taxes and but slight consideration to voting and the individual's own declarations, for reasons already dis-

cussed.

Where, by constitutional provision, statute, or administrative rule, a nonresident is defined as one who has not resided, or in the case of minors, whose parents have not resided, in the state for one year, this should be interpreted to mean domiciled one year prior to the opening of the proposed period of study rather than one year prior

to the original entry, for the reasons suggested earlier.

Also, any rule to the effect that a student may never become domiciled in the college community is an erroneous position and should be corrected to read that he should not be deemed to have gained a residence in the college community by his mere presence at the institution. The latter does not deny him the right to become domiciled while a student but merely demands that proof of such be established by evidence other than his residence as a student.

Administrators of nonresident tuition matters should not fear to rule against the acquisition of domicile in doubtful cases and such a policy will do much to correct the current wave of "trying to put it over" which some students attempt to practice and thus force a greater educational burden upon state taxpayers which it is not their

obligation to assume.

### THE INDIANA PLAN OF PRE-COLLEGE GUIDANCE

#### FRANK R. ELLIOTT

STATE COLLEGES, private colleges, and high schools of Indiana are now in their second year of a state-wide, tripartite program of precollege guidance which appears to be solving some of the problems associated with old-fashioned college recruiting activities. Approximately 17,000 students from 670 Indiana high schools attended precollege guidance conferences held last year in 72 of the 92 Indiana counties. About two-thirds of the conferences were on a county unit basis.

The typical pre-college guidance program calls for an all-day meeting of high school seniors, and oftentimes juniors, from the high schools of a county, usually in the county seat school. A local committee prepares the program. Principals, superintendents, and high school counselors on the committee (1) set the time and place of the meeting, (2) decide upon any vocational fields to be considered along with the college field, and (3) invite college and vocational counselors

for group and individual conferences.

The colleges co-operate in fixing dates, in providing speakers and counselors, and in other ways. A state college representative and a private college representative serve together as co-chairmen in each of six geographical districts. It is the duty of the co-chairmen to consult with local high school authorities on questions of conference dates, in developing conference programs, and in notifying the participating colleges of the conference schedules. An effort is made to arrange three conferences on consecutive days in contiguous counties in order to save time and expense for the college representatives. Tuesday, Wednesday and Thursday are the week days usually recommended.

The so-called State Committee on Educational Co-operation is the statewide co-ordinating agency. Its members include four representatives of the state colleges, four representatives of the private colleges, and four representatives from the secondary schools. The chairmanship of the Committee is rotated among the three groups. A secretary keeps records, reports schedules of the pre-college guidance conferences to the colleges, and administers the programs carried on by the

Committee aside from the guidance conferences.

The Indiana plan of pre-college guidance was proposed by the author of this article at the High School Principals' Conference meeting in November, 1938, at Indiana University. He asked why the state and private colleges could not unite in a joint program of pre-college guidance designed:

(1) To give Indiana high school seniors interested in college a well planned and carefully organized opportunity for learning about

facilities for higher education in Indiana.

(2) To provide this opportunity under the *joint auspices* of the high schools and colleges with sufficient supervision to insure that factual information, rather than college sales talk, would be presented.

(3) To save the high schools the annoyances and interruptions which result from unannounced "pop calls" by college representatives.

(4) To save time and money for the colleges by enabling them to meet interested students from the several high schools of a county at one time and place.

(5) To provide closer contacts between high school and college counselors and thus to help bridge the gap between high school and

college.

These questions were given further consideration during the winter of 1938-39 at a state meeting of school superintendents and at meetings of the admissions officers of Indiana's four state institutions of higher learning. The latter group decided in January, 1939, to try a county unit plan of pre-college guidance during the following February and March on an experimental basis.

Conferences were held in about 40 Indiana counties that spring. The state college group, while initiating the plan, urged the local high school committees to invite all colleges to participate, private as well as state, in which high school seniors would be interested. Both private and state colleges were represented, almost without exception.

The experiment seemed to meet a real need and to merit continuance. This was indicated by the fact that the state and private college groups each at about the same time in the summer of 1939 suggested a meeting for the working out of joint participation in future conferences. The tripartite organization was then formed for state college, private college, and high school representation and responsibility.

It has continued to function not only in the pre-college guidance conferences but also in related fields as well. The Committee on Educational Co-operation in Indiana now has under special consideration: (1) the preparation of a guidance booklet giving comparable data on all Indiana colleges, (2) the development of a uniform college admission blank, and (3) the possibility of conducting college aptitude tests in the high schools before the seniors are graduated rather than in college during orientation week when it is too late to make the best use of the results for scholarship selection and admission purposes.

The Indiana Plan of Pre-College Guidance is designed not to supplant but to supplement guidance programs already in effect in the high schools. Some schools hold their county guidance conference in the fall and look upon it as the corner stone on which to build the year's guidance program. Other schools prefer the guidance conference in the spring as the capstone of the year's guidance activities. In either case, the well planned guidance conference, bringing large numbers of high school seniors and juniors together from several schools, justifies the time of experienced counselors from professional, educational, industrial and business fields. These counselors make a valuable contribution to the everyday efforts of teachers and principals in trying to help boys and girls answer the question, After high school—what?

Some schools have tried half-day conferences; others, Saturday and evening meetings. The full day's conference on a regular school day has proved best, as a rule. The State Committee advocates ample time for personal interviews on career problems, and on courses, costs, living conditions, scholarships, self-help, and other facts about the colleges. The high schools are urged to prepare their students for the conferences and to follow them up with discussion programs. Questionnaires filled out by the participating students provide interesting

post-conference subject matter in some schools.

The State Committee has prepared and made available to school superintendents and principals a mimeographed Manual for the Organization of a Student Guidance Conference. It includes general suggestions and specimen programs of successful conferences previously held. The manual suggests the following schedule:

9:00 A.M. General Assembly

9:30 A.M. Discussion Groups

12:15 P.M. Luncheon for Principals and Counselors

12:45 P.M. Student Assembly

1:15 P.M. Discussion Groups, Forums, Personal Interviews

Some of the guidance conferences are devoted mainly to higher education, while others combine vocational, non-college counseling with college guidance.

The following program illustrates the combined vocational and college guidance type of conference:

#### ANDERSON HIGH SCHOOL

#### FIRST ANNUAL VOCATIONAL AND EDUCATIONAL

Guidance Conference

Tuesday, March 12, 1940

#### GENERAL MEETING

#### HIGH SCHOOL AUDITORIUM

- 8:30- 9:00—President L. A. Pittinger (Ball State) ...."Why Go To College?" (Introduction by Mr. Arthur Campbell)
- 9:00- 9:30—Dean Louis H. Dirks (DePauw University) . . "What Is The Record?" (Introduction by Mr. Arthur Campbell)
- 9:30-11:30-Vocational Group Meetings.

#### SECTIONAL—MORNING SCHEDULE

- (Every Senior attends one Sectional Meeting each hour)
- 9:30-10:30—Engineering—Mr. Clarence Dammon (Purdue University) . . . . . . 14
- (Introduction by Mr. Paul Bergevin)
  Home Economics—Miss Ruth Schuler (State Vocational)....

  - Medicine—Dr. F. C. Guthrie (Anderson Physician) ......207
  - (Introduction by Mr. Goss)

    Law—Mr. Russell Stewart (Anderson Attorney) ......Library
  - (Introduction by Mr. Rotruck)
    Teaching—Mr. Clarence Murray (Registrar, Ball

#### (At 10:30 all Sectional Groups are to assemble in Auditorium)

- 10:30-11:30-Beauty Culture-Mrs. Ruth Beck (Director Approved
  - University of Beauty Culture, Indianapolis) .....Library
  - (Introduction by Miss Arbogast) Nursing—Miss Isadora Deich (Director of Publicity, Ball

  - Aviation—Col. H. Weir Cook (World War Ace, Indianapolis) . 14 (Introduction by Mr. Goss)
  - Music-Mrs. Hazel Steele (Arthur Jordan Conservatory,
  - Business-Mr. C. R. Murray (Assistant to Dean, School of

Commerce, Indiana University) ................Auditorium (Introduction by Miss Brown)

11:30- 1:00-Luncheon for Visiting Guests . . . . . Critchley's, 409 West 7th Street

#### GENERAL MEETING

#### SECTIONAL—AFTERNOON SCHEDULE

1:30- 3:30- Educational Guidance-Interviews with College Representatives: Indiana University (Mr. R. C. Murray) ......Room 14 Purdue University (Prof. Clarence Dammon) ...........Room 105 Ball State Teachers College (Mr. Clarence Murray) .... Room 104 Indiana State Teachers College ........... Junior High, Room 2 Butler University (Mr. C. R. Maxam) ..... Auditorium, Right Front DePauw University (Dean L. H. Dirks) ......Auditorium Stage Wabash College (Mr. Franz Prell) ......Faculty Men's Room Earlham College (Mr. Ronald Reavis) ..... Auditorium, Left Rear Manchester College ........................Auditorium, Right Rear Hanover College (Miss Mary Ruth Palmer) ..... Library, Center Franklin College (Miss Eileen Hellerud) ... Auditorium, Left Front Anderson College (Dean Olt, Dan W. Martin) ..... Room 218 University of Chicago (Miss Elsie G. Perce) ......L-206 Ball Memorial Hospital (Miss Isadora Deich) ...Library, South End Approved University of Beauty Culture (Mrs. Beck) ...... .....Library, North End Arthur Jordan Conservatory of Music (Mrs. Hazel Steele) ...... Music Annex

Student Guides will be available at information desk in front hall

Anderson High School Guidance Committee

C. H. McClure, Chairman

REBA A. ARBOGAST KATHERINE BROWN C. D. ROTRUCK ELMER D. GOSS

The foregoing program gives some answer to the question of what to do with the 80 or 85 per cent of high school juniors and scniors who are not going to college. From the college point of view, one frequent difficulty in this type of program is that not enough time is available for pre-college guidance. A commercial business college with its display of business machines sometimes steals the show. It is also rather irritating to some college representatives to be participating along with the beauty college and barber college representatives. On the other hand, the good of the whole must be considered. The Guidance Conference takes a day out of the school schedule. Many

local committees feel that this amount of time is justified only if the conference covers both vocational and college counseling. This is particularly true among the smaller schools where very little vocational guidance is being offered and where a comparatively small percentage of seniors go on to college.

In conferences devoted strictly to pre-college guidance, some schools send all members of the senior class. Others include the juniors. Still other schools make a selection only of those interested in college.

Churches, American Legion homes, and other public buildings have been used for some conferences, where there was not room in the high school. This arrangement avoids some confusion in the school but, generally speaking, the high school building seems the more appropriate place.

The luncheon conferences provide valuable opportunities for the discussion of guidance problems and of transition from high school to college, and for the counselors to get better acquainted with each

other.

In the larger cities, no attempt has been made to bring all of the seniors to one building. Each school holds its own conference, usually for a full day. Some of the larger schools still prefer to invite selected college representatives to come on separate days for interviews with interested seniors.

Very few groups of schools which have tried the county guidance plan have dropped it. Many more have taken it up on hearing of its success in neighboring communities. Many letters of appreciation have been received by members of the State Committee from school officials, students, and their parents. The Indiana Plan for Pre-College Guidance seems destined to be continued in the Hoosier State.

#### HIGH SCHOOL STANDING AND COLLEGE GRADES

#### EDWARD L. CLARK

THE RELATIONSHIP between high school standing and college grades is not a fixed value which may some day be finally and definitely determined. It is rather a relationship which must vary from college to college, and which must depend in part upon the type of high schools furnishing the students. This relationship will also vary between men and women, will certainly vary from year to year for a particular college, and will always fluctuate for undetermined and unpredictable reasons which we commonly call chance.

As an illustration of what may happen in a liberal arts college of a large private institution with selective admissions, there is presented below a table of coefficients of correlation between high school rank and first semester college grades which have been collected over a tenyear period. The arbitrary units used to designate high school standing and to equate ranks from high schools of different sizes deserves a word of explanation. Instead of using the almost indefensible percentile ranks which have frequently been used in studies of this kind to designate high school standing, we assumed a normal curve for graduating classes and cut the baseline of this curve into 30 segments of .2 standard deviation each and numbered these segments from 1 to 30. (This procedure is approximately equivalent to multiplying all z-scores by 5, adding the constant 16, and dropping all fractions.) The highest arbitrary score used (30) was made to include every one who was 2.8 standard deviations or more above the mean. The chief objection to the use of standard scores, such as are used here to designate high school rank, is the assumption of a normal distribution of achievement in each high school graduating class, but this objection becomes less important when the high school classes are very large, as they were for most students of this study. This objection to the type of scores used to designate high school rank is insignificant as compared to the almost complete absence in percentile scores of a unit, the first requirement of a measuring scale. Adjacent percentile scores may represent any value from a very small difference in achievement to at least ten times the small difference.

With this word of explanation the first line of the table of data may be read thus: In 1930 there were 352 men who entered the Col-

HIGH SCHOOL STANDINGS AND FIRST SEMESTER COLLEGE GRADES

Entering Year		Sex	H. S. Ranks		College Grades		Pearson's	
	ear N		Mean	S.D.	Mean	S.D.	•	
1930	352	$\mathbf{M}$	19.2	3.77	3.19	1.37	.453	
	276	F	20.9	3.60	3.58	1.35	.510	
1932	363	M	18.9	4.66	3.38	1.49	.594	
* .	263	F	20.0	4.52	3.75	1.40	.601	
1934	341	$\mathbf{M}$	18.7	4.59	3.53	1.45	.624	
	222	F	20.4	4.33	3.78	1.40	.652	
1936	385	$\mathbf{M}$	19.4	3.99	3.35	1.45	.600	
	244	F	20.8	4.23	3.65	1.28	.649	
1937	422	$\mathbf{M}$	18.9	3.63	3.43	1.42	.591	
	310	F	21.1	3.89	3.52	1.32	.559	
1938	345	M	19.9	3.73	3.28	1.40	.472	
	301	F	20.6	3.76	3.59	1.31	.544	
1939	395	M	18.9	3.82	3.36	1.36	.482	
	313	F	20.4	3.77	3.33	1.36	.509	
]	Rho's be-	M	46	.64	.75	.78		
	tween r's and other varia- bles	F	17	.79	.86	.12		

lege of Liberal Arts as freshmen. The arithmetic mean of their scores representing high school ranks was 19.2 (a value which shows that the average man was in the lower part of the first quarter of his high school class) and the standard deviation of these scores was 3.77. The average number of quality points made during the first semester was 3.19 (where 7.0 is the maximum) with a standard deviation of 1.37. The Pearson product moment coefficient of correlation between high school rank and first semester grades was for this group of men .453. The coefficients of correlation obtained during this ten-year period range from .45 to .65 and averaged about .56. Casual inspection indicates that the relationships between high school ranks and college grades were generally higher for women than for men. The fluctuation from year to year of coefficients for men was a little greater than the probable error of particular coefficients (.03 to .04) would lead one to expect. Fluctuation of r's for the women was not large in view of the probable error of each coefficient, but the marked tendency (rho = .89) of the coefficients for men and women to rise and fall together from year to year indicates clearly that chance causes alone cannot account for the variety of r's. The decline in the coefficients of correlation since 1934 has been so smooth that we can with confidence assume that the 1940 correlations will average very near to .5.

In the last two lines of the table of data are shown the relationships (rho's or rank-difference coefficients) between the r's for the seven classes and the means and standard deviations of the two variables of this study. For example, the men of this study showed a relationship between the r's and the means of high school rank of -.46; between the r's and the standard deviation of ranks the relationship was .64; between r's and the means of college grades the relationship was .75; and with standard deviations of college grades the relationship was .78. That the size of the Pearson r's from year to year should be negatively related to the means of high school ranks (-.46 for men and -.17 for women) and positively related to the standard deviations of high school ranks (.64 and .79) is logical and understandable. The lower the high school group admitted to the university, the more likely it is to be heterogeneous and the more heterogeneous the group the higher in general will be the correlations obtained. These last four rho's mentioned suggest then that when selection is poor, as during the economic depression years, the entering groups will be lower and consequently more heterogeneous and correlations with college grades will be higher.

The relationship between r's and the standard deviations of college grades (.78 and .12) is what would be expected in that both rho's are positive (heterogeneous groups give high correlations) but the correlations with the means of college grades (.75 and .86) are rather unexpected in being high and in being positive instead of negative. The positive correlation within any one class which exists between college grades of individuals and their high school ranks might lead one to expect the means of college grades to vary inversely with the r's just as do the means of high school ranks. This tendency for the average college grades to be high during years in which the r's were high and when the selection of students was poorest is certainly contrary to what may usually be expected. The tentative explanation for this tendency in these data is that there was more uniformly high effort among the students during the worst of the depression and perhaps a change in faculty attitudes towards failing the weak students. Good effort on the part of the students and faculty leniency with the weakest students allowed the poorest groups of the decade to make the highest grades and thus give us the unexpected positive rho's between mean grades and r's.

While the data of this report are not sufficiently numerous to give

definite answers to some of the problems raised, there are some conclusions and suggestions which may be pointed to in closing.

1. Because men and women differ rather consistently in high school ranks and in college grades, and in the correlations which these ranks and college grades have with each other, it is usually wise to consider these two groups separately.

2. A method of changing high school ranks to standard scores, such as the method used in this report, is much to be preferred to the com-

monly used inaccurate percentile ranks.

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- 3. During years when selection of applicants was less rigorous and the average high school rank somewhat lower than usual, the correlations between high school ranks and college grades were highest. This finding suggests that colleges having little or no selection of students may expect to find rather high relationship between these two variables.
- 4. While the correlations presented in this study, like all others, are subject to some meaningless fluctuations, repeated investigations over a number of years will exhibit trends which are useful to know.

#### THE ORIENTATION PROGRAM AT WISCONSIN

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#### CURTIS MERRIMAN

We find not only the basic idea of such programs in the old Greek practices, but even some of the most detailed events. In Aristophanes's *The Clouds* we find students called upon to take achievement tests as a preparation for their work. Even aptitude tests in a pretty modern sense were required.

During the centuries that have elapsed it has always been the custom for new students to learn much about the ways of college life by contacts with upper classmen. This sometimes took the form of hazing. Sometimes a group of young fellows assumed the role of the big brother. We also read accounts of the splendid efforts of some of the great masters of private secondary schools. All of these activities were forms of orientation.

When I was attending college at the opening of the present century, many of the things we now do under the general direction of the college administration were being done by campus organizations. For example, the Y.M.C.A. had its members return to the campus early in order to meet trains, greet students, and help new students find their way about during the first days of the semester.

As institutions became larger and enrolment procedures became more complex, the colleges sensed the need for an organized procedure to aid students in getting well started. The idea of Freshman or Orientation Week was established in several institutions many years before Freshman Week as a formal program came into existence. Brown University had special days as far back as 1913 or 1914. Wellesley had a pretty well organized period by 1920. The University of Maine had its first annual Freshman Week in the fall of 1923.

At Wisconsin the first Freshman Week was held in the fall of 1928. Previous to this time there had been a Freshman Welcome Program usually for an hour on Friday of the first week. At this time the freshman class assembled on the front campus and were addressed by upper classmen, one of the deans, the President of the University, and the Governor of the State. This was really a very impressive and inspiring occasion, but Mr. Frank O. Holt, who was then Registrar

of the University, and President Glenn Frank had the conviction that such a program did not go far enough. It was with this conviction that they set to work to plan for an entire week of well organized, purposeful activities at the opening of the University in September 1928.

The purposes of that first program are set forth in the following sentences which are quoted from the handbook which was placed in the hands of all incoming freshmen.

It is the purpose of the University to make the adjustment of freshmen to the environment of college life more natural and easy. A large number of the very busy members of the faculty and an equal number of the upperclassmen have volunteered their services to help make the venture a success by contributing of their time and effort during the period.

The problem of successfully meeting the requirements of college is very different from the problem of successfully meeting the requirements of the high school. There is a certain confusion that results from the difference in size. There is uncertainty which comes from the contrast of the close supervision of high school days to the very different freedom of college life. There is misunderstanding as to the requirements of University courses and regulations. Too frequently the facilities of the University are not realized until late in the college career. Often the place and purpose of extra-curricular activities, fraternity and sorority membership, and other social connections are inadequately understood. The very size of a great institution conveys an impression of coldness, of lack of sympathy for the individual. Many are the perplexing situations with which freshmen are troubled upon matriculation.

I have quoted at some length from that first handbook because the quotation shows how far reaching and complete was the thinking of Mr. Holt and President Frank. The same sentences could quite appropriately be used in the fall of 1941. The program which was formulated embodied four basic ideas: (1) getting the freshmen on the campus several days early so that everything could be centered upon them and their problems, (2) arranging for an individual conference between the student and an especially appointed and informed faculty adviser, (3) providing for a series of contacts between the freshman and an outstanding upper classman who had volunteered to return early for this purpose, and (4) making arrangements for certain aptitude and placement tests which would facilitate proper assignment to class sections.

Space does not permit me to give the complete program that was

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set up to cover one complete week prior to the opening of school. The following must suffice to indicate something of the wide variety of events which were included in the plan.

- 1. Reporting at a previously designated place for preliminary instructions.
  - 2. Informal campus tour conducted by upper classmen.
- 3. College aptitude test (The Ohio Psychological Test was used that year).
- 4. Foreign language placement tests for students who planned to continue a language which had been started in the high school.
- 5. Group meeting with the dean for explanation of special regulations for that particular college.
- 6. Individual conference with the faculty adviser who had previously been given a special confidential report from the principal of the high school.
  - 7. Completion of college enrolment, payment of fees, etc.
  - 8. Medical examination.
- 9. Library laboratory—students grouped into sections for instruction about the use of the library.
  - 10. Placement test in English.
- 11. Employment conference in charge of the Director of the Student Employment Bureau.
  - 12. Union Open House—evening program.
  - 13. Observation period to see varsity football practice.
- 14. How-to-Study Laboratories—Two sessions of one hour each. Groups in charge of especially interested faculty men.
  - 15. Teas for women.
  - 16. Smokers for men.
- 17. President's Convocation.—A one-hour meeting for formal introduction of college deans and a thirty minute address by President Frank.

This was the program and its purposes in 1928. As the work has gone along since that time, we have encountered some difficulties and have found it wise to make some additions. First, as to the difficulties. There was the feeling on the part of some faculty members that we were doing too much "spoon feeding." They felt that college students should be able to read the catalog and make their own decisions with reference to courses and requirements. This background led to one of the real difficulties in any advising program—namely the problem

of getting informed and sympathetic advisers. The solution of this problem depends in large part upon the administrative support of the president and the deans. We were fortunate at Wisconsin in having a president and deans who felt that such advisory work was just as much a mark of goodness as was diligence in research and abundance of publication.

The early programs ran through an entire week. This was too long. We found that by making certain changes we could get all the essential work done in two days' less time. We found some trouble at first from the desire of the fraternities and sororities to take advantage of the opportunity to do rushing and pledging. Conferences brought about a regulation whereby nothing of this kind was to be done during the freshman period. The members of such organizations do not even wear their pins during the week. We had also to take a very definite stand with reference to the introduction of any kind of commercial advertising in any event. No such material is per-

mitted from either campus or off-campus organizations.

Two changes in the original plan have been made. In the first place, the session with the librarian was discontinued. The students had not become familiar enough with college procedures to have any motivation in the direction of library rules. Some of the routine library regulations were printed in the time table of classes, and specific instructions concerning the finding and using of reference books were left in the hands of the instructional staff in the departments of English and history. Almost the same problem was encountered in the laboratory sessions on Methods of Study. The program was cut to one period, which was given over to a lecture dealing with some of the special problems of study such as maintaining attention, good reading habits, taking notes, preparing for reviews and examinations, together with some attention to budgeting time, care of health, etc. The general lecture on Methods of Study has not been very effective. In the fall of 1940, we used the one-hour period to have the students fill out the Wrenn Inventory of Study Habits. Some time was available for a brief discussion of the significance of the items in this inventory. The main use of this material was found in the later organization of a Clinic on How to Study. This met for a series of volunteer non-credit sessions during the first semester. In these clinics a special effort was made to apply the best principles of learning to specific problems for each individual student. The success of our work seems to be in direct

proportion to the degree to which the instruction and practice become individualized.

We have made a few additions to the first plan. No doubt, all of these new ideas were implied in the first plan, but later years have seen special attention given to them. The first program was centered entirely around the entering freshman. For the past three years we have enlarged the scope to include students who are new to the campus by transfer from other schools. This item is introduced near the close of the regular period and the principal thought is to acquaint these people with the campus and some of the University regulations and traditions.

At the suggestion of upper-class student leaders in the spring of 1940, a training program was organized for those students who were to return early in September to assist in the work with the freshmen. Group leaders were appointed and several training sessions were held during the month of May. The students then met with these leaders in groups of ten to twelve members for a discussion of the questions that previous experience had shown to be important for new students. This program seemed to accomplish two purposes. The students themselves became more vitally interested in the real purposes of freshman week, and in the second place they could really answer the questions correctly. We have found that this training period has been almost as valuable for the upper classmen themselves as for the freshmen, because attention was given not only to the facts which were to be communicated, but to the best methods of presenting the material.

We have found it wise to make special provision for a meeting of all the men with the Dean of Men and for a meeting of all the women with the Dean of Women. This has given the deans an opportunity to warn against some of the dangers that are to be found on every campus and, perhaps even more important, to make helpful suggestions for the formulation and establishment of a sound philosophy of life. The deans speak very frankly about such matters as social customs, relations between the sexes, conduct in the community, payment of debts, church attendance, and the like.

Still another addition must be mentioned. In the fall of 1939 President and Mrs. Dykstra invited the entire freshman class to come to their home on Sunday afternoon for a lawn party. The weather man was kind to us, and to this day some of the freshmen talk about the experience of being invited into the home of the President. It made

them feel that the University, and even its President, was interested in them as individuals. This reception was repeated in the 1940 program with the same gratifying results. We hope it has become a permanent feature.

If the reader has followed this somewhat detailed account of the changes that have been made, he will see that our program is still following the general plan that was set up in 1928. The additions and changes have come as a result of the co-operative effort of about 350 upper-class students and about 200 faculty members who return early to have a part in the activities. In the discussion thus far, I have not mentioned the hours of work that a clerk in the Registrar's Office puts in during July and August to make all the room, group, and individual assignments that are necessary to care for a freshman class of 2,500 members.

The changes and additions which have come about have all been related to the purposes of Orientation Week as stated by Mr. Holt and Mr. Frank in 1928. We still have, and probably will continue to have, the basic problems of making the transition from the high school to the college campus. It is not contended in this paper that the orientation movement has reached perfection. It is believed that the movement has justified itself in a better relation between the teacher and the taught; and that students are more fully aware of the many sidedness of college life. Life, however, does not remain static. Changes are taking place in the secondary schools and it is probable that these changes will make it necessary for college programs to change along at least three specific lines.

Many high schools now have guidance or personnel departments. These departments will gradually build up a knowledge of the personal qualities of the students. A system of cumulative records will pass this information on to the colleges. The colleges will then have to include in their programs some plan for utilizing all this data on individual differences. This will not mean the abandonment of group instruction, but it will mean better adjustment of the individual

in terms of his educational objectives and possibilities.

Very closely related to the problem just suggested is the growing need for some form of vocational orientation. Many students come to a college campus with almost no idea of what they are going to make of themselves. They come hoping that one or two years of general education will in some way reveal the secret of what they are best fitted to do. Our present programs place the emphasis upon academic and social adaptations. The growing complexity of our industrial age is making it necessary for the college to seek methods

for aiding young folks to make vocational choices.

And this suggests still another problem for the immediate future. Our orientation programs must be extended to run throughout the year. We must not stop after we have given placement tests and medical examinations. Guidance in better habits of study, remedial reading work, and stimulation for better organization and integration of knowledge are ideals towards which more of the work of the freshman year will be directed.

And finally for the purpose of organizing our own thinking about all these problems, some of us have tried to formulate some of the elements which should go into our conception of the sort of student we are trying to produce. We would like to think that our orientation program will have a large part in making it possible for us to say

that a Wisconsin graduate is a person who:

 Has developed a lifelong interest in some worth-while subject of study.

2. Has made a substantial beginning on vocational efficiency.

3. Has established habits of courtesy, co-operation, friendliness, and dependability.

4. Has equipped himself to be a worthy member of the political life of his state and nation.

5. Has built into his personality the ideals and practices of high moral character.

To the student, faculty member, or college that tries to reach this high purpose, an orientation program cannot be a dreaded task of routine drudgery.

### EVALUATION AND COUNSELING OF TEACHERS

WYATT W. HALE

COLLEGE administrative officers responsible for staff appointments and promotions are continually, though not always consciously, evaluating the effectiveness of each staff member. At best, this evaluation is likely to be quite inadequately done, and decisions based upon too little evidence are apt to be very unfair at times to staff members, to students, and to the institutions.

All too often the only practical use made of information collected (vicariously or otherwise) concerning faculty members by administrative officers is in deciding what seems desirable in the matter of "hiring and firing" of staff. However, "firing" is often either difficult or practically impossible. Too frequently no attempt has been made by administrative officers to use favorable or unfavorable criticisms which come to them as a basis for counseling with faculty members to help them improve their effectiveness. For these and other reasons, every available means should be employed in an attempt to stimulate faculty members to engage in a continuing self-analysis of their strengths and weaknesses.

If the oft-repeated objective of a student-centered institution is to be more than a mere shibboleth, the judgment of students concerning the effectiveness of the faculty may well be considered. It was with this thought in mind that a questionnaire was prepared by means of which seniors at Birmingham-Southern College have been asked to indicate their evaluation of the effectiveness of faculty members. A copy of the form used is shown as Form A. From an examination of the form, it will be noted that the students were asked to rate the effectiveness of faculty members with whom they had studied as excellent (A), good (B), average (C), or poor (D). They were asked to rate on a similar scale the effectiveness outside the classroom of all faculty members with whom their contacts had been sufficient for them to feel that they might have formed valid judgments. In addition to these ratings of the faculty, each senior was requested to name the faculty member who had been "most helpful", and to indicate the ways in which this faculty member had been most helpful to him. In like manner, the seniors were requested to list the faculty members whom they considered "most effective" and "least

#### FORM A

Please list your Major. Minor. Please list your Major.

In Column I below, please indicate by one check ( $\sqrt{}$ ) to the left of the names of the Faculty members those under whom you have taken work for one semester. Place two checks ( $\sqrt{}$ ) to the left of each of those under whom you have taken work for two semesters, and place three checks ( $\sqrt{}$ ) to the left of each of those under whom you have taken work for three or more semesters. In the columns to the right of the names of the Faculty members, please indicate by the letters A, B, C, D (A, Excellent; B, Good; C, Average; D, Poor), how you In p-

I		II	III
Semesters of Work Taken	Faculty Member (Names Listed)	Effectiveness in Class Work	Effectiveness Outsid Classroom
	mber has been most help		
In what ways?  What faculty mer	nber do you consider the	e most effective?	
In what ways?  What faculty mer		e most effective?	

IV. Please make any comments you care to concerning any phase of the work at the College:

(a) Which you think is good and should be continued

(b) Which should be changed (How?) (c) Which should be added to make Birmingham-Southern College more effective (something which you have missed which you think would have contributed to your college education).

(Use back of page if needed)

effective" with reasons or comments as to factors to which they attributed this effectiveness or ineffectiveness.

The questionnaire was presented to the seniors at a group meeting about two weeks prior to graduation, without any previous notice to them that they would be asked for their judgment of the faculty. All the time desired was allowed for completing the forms. In the explanatory statement given when these questionnaires were presented to the seniors, the Dean called attention to the fact that they were not asked to sign their answers, and further assured them that no analysis or use would be made of materials from the questionnaires until after commencement. They were promised also that even then every precaution would be taken to prevent identification of individual students by faculty members. The Dean appealed to the seniors for their frank criticisms, and assured them that the purpose of the questionnaire was an honest effort to improve the work, the offerings, and the effectiveness of the College. Careful examination of their responses indicates that the seniors approached the matter seriously and with a desire to be helpful in their comments.

The plan for using the results of the questionnaire has been as

follows: For each faculty member a summary sheet was made up, on which there was listed the number of times he was rated in classroom effectiveness as A, B, C, or D (or in some few cases E or F) by students who had taken work with him. The same kind of summary was made for responses in the column headed "effectiveness outside the classroom." In order to translate the total ratings of each faculty member into a single figure (weighted average) which might be termed his "Index of Effectiveness", a value of three (3) was arbitrarily assigned to each rating of A, of two (2) to each rating of B, of one (1) to each rating of C, and of zero (0) to each rating of D (or E or F). The sum of these for each faculty member then was divided by the number of students rating this faculty member. The resulting weighted indices of effectiveness were then arranged in descending order from highest to lowest for effectiveness in class work and the faculty member with the highest index number for effectiveness in class work was assigned Code Number 1, the next to the highest was given Code Number 2, etc. These same code numbers were used in the table of indices of effectiveness outside the classroom, which were arranged in descending order from highest to

lowest. The comparative standings of the faculty members ranked as

to effectiveness in class work and effectiveness outside the classroom are shown in Table I.

The number of times each faculty member was listed by a senior

TABLE I EFFECTIVENESS OF BIRMINGHAM-SOUTHERN COLLEGE FACULTY AS JUDGED BY 1939 GRADUATES

Code Number	EFFECTIV CLASS		Code Number	Effectiveni Class	
OF FACULTY MEMBER	Number of Graduates Ranking	Index of Effective- ness	OF FACULTY MEMBER	Number of Graduates Ranking	Index of Effective ness
1	6	2.6667	3	37	2.8919
2	64	2.6250	1	24	2.7500
3	9	2.5556	4	61	2.7377
4	55	2.5091	6	7	2.5714
5	91	2.5055	5	87	2.4828
6	4	2.5000	13	73	2.3836
7 8	45	2.4444	11	52	2.3462
8	84	2.4286	2	62	2.2581
9	35	2.3429	9	36	2.1667
10	43	2.3095	12	31	2.1613
11	50	2.2800	7 16	50	2.1600
12	17	2.1767	16	58	2.0517
13	74	2.1081	33	37	2.0270
14	85	2.0941	10	40	2.0000
15	46	2.0435	34	87	1.9885
16	59	2.0339	20	72	1.9722
17	77	2.0000	21	35	1.9714
18	57	1.9825	28	47	1.9149
19	79	1.9367	8	74	1.8784
20	87	1.9310	24	26	1.8462
21	27	1.8148	15	49	1.8367
22	24	1.6250	31	45	1.8222
23	28	1.6071	14	72	1.7500
24	22	1.5455	32	26	1.6923
25	20	1.5000	22	34	1.6176
26	33	1.4848	30	62	1.5968
27	66	1.4697	17	70	1.5286
28	43	1.4651	18	57	1.5263
29	37	1.4324	27	64	1.4844
30	68	1.4265	29	39	1.4359
31	48	1.4167	25	22	1.4091
32	16	1.3750	19	70	1.3857
33	28	1.3214	26	32	1.3438
34	92	1.3152	37	24	1.2500
35	64	1.2188	23	34	1.2059
36	47	.9574	35	55	1.1818
37	19	.8947	36	42	.6905

as most helpful, most effective, and least effective was then tabulated, together with a tabulation of the department in which the senior had done his major work. The statements of reasons were purposely not classified as to the major department of the senior, however, to help prevent faculty members from connecting the criticisms—favorable

TABLE II
BIRMINGHAM-SOUTHERN COLLEGE FACULTY MEMBERS CLASSIFIED BY
1939 GRADUATES AS MOST HELPFUL, MOST EFFECTIVE,
AND LEAST EFFECTIVE

Most H	TELPFUL	Most E	Prective	LEAST	EFFECTIVE
Faculty Member's Code Number	Number of Graduates by Whom so Listed	Faculty Member's Code Number	Number of Graduates by Whom so Listed	Faculty Member's Code Number	Number of Graduates by Whom so Listed
5 16 2 17 7 20 30 10 26 11 27 8 33 4 11 22 18 13 21 14 15 23 A 9 3 3 37 29 B 35 37 29 B 35 36 B 37 29 37 29 38 39 30 30 30 30 30 30 30 30 30 30 30 30 30	17 15 11 8 76 6 5 5 4 4 4 3 3 3 3 3 3 3 3 3 3 3 3 3 1 1 1 1	2 8 17 5 4 7 13 10 16 18 34 27 23 19 20 14 29 12 21 22 21 28 9	28 20 16 14 9 8 5 5 4 3 3 2 2 2 1 1 1 1	30 35 27 36 37 26 17 23 34 28 31 29 21 33 16 20 25 24 32 21 11 18 13 7 9	14 13 12 10 8 6 5 4 4 4 4 3 3 3 3 3 1 1 1 1 1
TOTALS	145		133		111

or otherwise—with individual seniors. This information is summarized in Table II.

Each faculty member was furnished with a copy of the questionnaire and copies of Tables I and II. In the letter from the Dean which accompanied these materials, each faculty member was given his own Code Number and was invited to stop by the Dean's Office for conference. At the conference with each of those who accepted the invitation, the more detailed tabulations of how students ranked him, as well as the comments made by the seniors as to the ways in which he had been helpful or effective were made available to the faculty member concerned. These form the basis for an attempt to counsel with the faculty member concerned, just as similar conferences are held from time to time with students, when the faculty ratings of students (grades assigned), standard test scores, and other information are used in the program of student counseling.

In giving their reasons for considering various faculty members as most helpful, the following were included by the seniors, along with

many other reasons:

1. Always sincere; never too busy to give help asked for; inspires feeling of confidence.

2. Intellectual stimulation and pleasant association.

- 3. (a) In contributing to my Christian ideals; (b) in insisting on clear thinking; (c) interest in me personally.
  - 4. The creation of a vision, and of courage to face the future.
- 5. Interest in me and my work, and a stimulation to go further than the textbook.
- 6. In advising me as to my school work, on subjects not pertaining to school, and as a friend.

The following are examples of student comment listing reasons for the effectiveness of faculty members who were named as most effective:

- 1. Openmindedness, progress, study, preparation. Personal and active interest in students.
- 2. Clear explanations and an excellent knowledge of his subject, along with an easy manner of handling students.
  - 3. He is so gentle and kind that you just want to work for him.
- 4. His ability to understand pupils as human beings and each as an individual.
  - 5. Thoroughly knows his subject and always presents it well;

always interested in students.

6. His personal interest in students; great personality and understanding; and considering students as equals whose opinions about literature, art, etc., are worth just as much as his own.

Equally incisive were the analyses of weaknesses which cause students to label certain faculty members as least effective. Among these comments were the following:

1. He doesn't seem to understand just what the student doesn't grasp.

2. His dry, monotonous tone, and his feeble jokes.

3. His attitude of indifference to those not in his field. His unfriendliness outside class. Boring in class.

4. Too busy with outside work; not primarily interested in teaching; egotistical.

5. Brilliant in his field, but talks of other things in class; more interested in making people laugh; doesn't know anything about students except a few majors.

As might have been anticipated, there was a wide variety in the reactions of faculty members to the reports which were given to them. A very few were inclined to "laugh off" the criticisms, but most of them accepted them as they were intended—sincere efforts on the part of students, soon to become alumni, to be helpful to those under whom they had sat and to aid in the improvement of the work of the College.

The index of effectiveness for each faculty member is, of course, valuable information for the individual faculty member and especially for administrative officials. Instructors who consistently are ranked either high or low by succeeding senior classes must come to realize on the one hand that they are employing methods which are very effective, or if they are at the bottom of the scale, that they are not succeeding with their students. By means of the comments as to why students consider him as helpful and effective, or the reverse, the alert faculty member is able to retain and build upon his good traits, and to work to correct or eliminate his weaknesses. Because faculty members indicated appreciation for this type of information, provision was made for expanding this phase of the survey of opinions of the Class of 1940. In addition to listing and commenting on the faculty members they considered most helpful, most effective and least effective, members of the Class of 1940 were requested to list on a separate

sheet the faculty members under whom they studied during their senior year and to comment concerning the helpfulness or effectiveness of each. In this way, many more comments were made concerning a larger number of faculty members, thus increasing the usefulness of the instrument.

What will result from continued use of this device cannot, of course, be foretold with any degree of accuracy. After having employed it for two years, we are even more convinced of its utility as a means for counseling with and stimulating faculty members than was true after only one year of experience with it. Undoubtedly, it is potentially "full of dynamite" if it is wrongfully employed. On the other hand, it offers wide possibilities for helping faculty members to discover their strong and weak qualities and thus to advance toward more effective work with their students, if and when it is rightly evaluated and used.

#### WHY STUDENT PERSONNEL DEPARTMENTS?

OMAR C. HELD

When a patient goes to a physician it is the accepted practice, and it is quite essential, that the physician make a diagnosis before a course of treatment is prescribed. The physician attempts by the use of instruments and by questions to get as much information as possible about the patient before making a diagnosis and prescribing treatment. He takes the patient's temperature, checks his pulse, looks at his tongue, and perhaps makes a urinalysis or a blood test. After getting as much information of an objective type as possible, he questions the patient about his habits of sleep, diet, work, recreation, and about his previous illnesses. It is only after diagnosis that a course of treatment is prescribed.

In like manner it is just as essential for the school or college to make a careful diagnosis of a student before they subject him to their educational treatment. If either the school or physician begins treatment before diagnosis we may expect complications in the student

or patient.

Before starting a course of educational treatment for a student, we want to know something of his background, of his ability, interests, likes, dislikes, emotions, skills, health, family, hobbies, outside work, and his hopes and aspirations. It is only then that we are able to make an intelligent diagnosis which is the basis for sound educational treatment.

A generation or so ago when college enrolments were small and the educational offering somewhat limited it was comparatively easy for the faculty to get to know each student and his background quite well. Each faculty member probably taught a student in several different courses and had other opportunities for contacts with him which enabled the teacher to know and to understand his needs to a very large extent. However, with growing enrolments and specialization of teaching, the opportunities for the teacher to know his students well have been reduced. This, I believe, has made it possible for us to become too much concerned with the subject we are teaching and not enough concerned with the one who is being taught.

In spite of the obstacles which have hindered teachers from knowing their students as well as was possible a generation or so ago, their

interest in and their liking for human beings have assisted them in overcoming these obstacles in numerous instances. This is as it should be. No person is worthy of the designation of "teacher" who is not concerned with the all-round growth and development of the individual student.

In order to help the teacher to know the individual student, his needs, handicaps, background, family, attitudes, interests, abilities, fears, health, past performance, hopes and aspirations, the various per-

sonnel officers were created in schools and colleges.

This appointment of deans of men, deans of women, student advisers, placement officers, religious advisers, school physicians, and others was in no sense to remove from teachers any feeling of personal responsibility to their students. It was thought that such personnel officers would supplement what was being done and assist the teacher to know his students better. This is as it should be, for it is only through our co-operative efforts that we can hope to attain our aims. Thus we see that personnel activity in one sense was not a great departure from what had been done, but merely an organized effort to perform our work more efficiently. In a very real sense every one from the president to the newest graduate assistant is a personnel officer who assists by aiding us to know our students better.

It was also felt that physicians, deans of men, deans of women, psychologists, religious advisers and others, because of their special training, would be more adept in helping us to understand the individual student. No matter how well intentioned and friendly a teacher may be in wanting to help a student whose difficulty consists in having a bad heart, a reading disability, an emotional upset, or who does not know how to meet and to get along with people, he cannot advise as wisely as some one who has been trained to deal with such specific difficulties. Much the same situation has developed in the field of medicine.

Another factor which led to the appointment of personnel officers was the changing concept of education itself. Education involves more than merely training the mind or teaching people how to earn a living. It involves the training of the whole student; his mind, his body, and his emotions. We have had students go out from college with well trained minds yet who do not realize their full potentialities because of poor health, inability to get along with people, or because of excessive fears. There have been other college graduates who have well

trained minds who have become a menace to society because they were lacking in character qualities.

Personnel workers have continuously emphasized the importance of the all-round development of the individual student in the educational process. The American College Personnel Association adopted the following definition and goal of personnel work a few years ago. "Personnel work in a college or university is the systematic bringing to bear on the individual student all those influences, of whatever nature, which will stimulate him and assist him, through his own efforts, to develop in body, mind, and character to the limits of his individual capacity for growth, and helping him to apply his powers so developed most effectively to the work of the world."

The University of Pittsburgh, through its various personnel agencies, comes in rather close contact with its students. Our high school relations man frequently makes contact with the student before he is actually admitted to the university. From this time until his graduation, an attempt is made to assist the student to develop his full

stature intellectually, physically, socially, and in character.

The records from the various personnel offices show instances where proper diagnosis and treatment have been of great assistance to students in realizing their hopes and aspirations. However, only one of these will be commented upon here. John was born with a physical handicap. He was a somewhat shy, retiring young man which may have been due in part to his handicap. Since John's father and grandfather had been engineers the family decided that John too should become an engineer. This decision was made for the boy in spite of his physical handicap and a poor high school background in mathematics. John had no liking for engineering but took the course at the insistence of his family. Because of his poor background in mathematics and lack of interest the boy failed to do satisfactory work and was twice dropped from the engineering school which he was attending. When he was dropped the second time his aunt, who was interested in John, wrote to the head of the psychology department asking if he would examine the boy to determine if he was college caliber. The examination revealed that John was distinctly above average in capacity and quite capable of doing college work which was in line with his interests and educational background. The head of the psychology department recommended that the boy attend the University of Pittsburgh Summer School and take courses in which he

had an interest and for which he had some background. He made five hours of "A' credit and five hours of "B" work in this summer course. On the strength of John's good showing in summer school and on the psychological examination the admissions committee admitted him to the college where he eventually graduated with a "B+" average. During the last semester of his senior year John did eleven hours of "A" work and five hours of "B" work. More important than his fine academic performance was the marked change in the boy's whole outlook on life as a result of finding himself. At the present time John has his masters degree, is happily married, and has a good position.

This one illustration demonstrates the great importance of a proper diagnosis before educational treatment is laid down. Where the process is reversed we may have a setting which may lead to failure, unhappiness, and a general feeling of social inadequacy. If, on the other hand, we could assist each student to realize his full potentialities for all-round development, the effect on the student body would be very great. The good influence from such a program would make it-self felt in the various homes, communities, and in the nation.

# DOES HIGH SCHOOL RANK DETERMINE COLLEGE SUCCESS?

#### DOROTHY REQUA

In order to determine as nearly as possible the relationship between high school scholastic records and academic success in college, the following study was made of students in their first and second years in college. Vocational students and those transferring from other colleges or universities were not included in the study.

In the fall of 1938, 425 students began their first year in college at the Southern Branch, University of Idaho. Of this number 122, or 28.70 per cent, ranked¹ in the first quartile of their high school class; 123, or 28.94 per cent, ranked in the second highest quartile; 65, or 15.30 per cent, ranked in the third quartile; 36, or 8.47 per cent, ranked in the fourth quartile; while for 79 freshmen, or 18.59 per cent, no rank was designated by the high school principals. The distribution by quartiles is shown in Table I.

TABLE I DISTRIBUTION OF GROUP BY RANK IN HIGH SCHOOL CLASS

HIGH SCHOOL QUARTILE	Number in Group	Percentage of Total
First	122	28.70
Second	123	28.94
Third	65	8.47
Fourth	36	8.47
Unclassified	79	18.59
Total	425	100.00

Of the 425 first-semester freshmen, 27 withdrew before the end of the semester or otherwise failed to complete their work. These 27 students were distributed among the quartiles as shown in Table II.

The 398 remaining freshmen earned an average for their first semester of 2.134, while the average for all academic students at the Southern Branch, University of Idaho, was 2.311 for the first se-

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> High school principals are asked to designate on each student's record his quartile rank, i.e., whether his scholastic record for his four years of high school places him in the first quartile (upper fourth) of his graduating class, or the second, third, or lowest quartile.

TABLE II
DISTRIBUTION BY HIGH SCHOOL RANK OF FRESHMEN COMPLETING
AND NOT COMPLETING THE FIRST SEMESTER

HIGH SCHOOL QUARTILE	Number of Entering Freshmen	Number Who Did Not Complete 1st Semester	NUMBER WHO DID COMPLETE 18T SEMESTER
First	122	4	118
Second	123	7	116
Third	65	4	61
Fourth	36	5	31
Unclassified	79	7	72
TOTAL	425	27	398

mester, 1938-39. These averages were computed on the following basis: A equals 4 points; B equals 3, C equals 2, and D, the lowest passing grade, equals 1 point. Thus, a 2.134 average indicates that the average grade earned is a C+. The highest quartile group of first-semester freshmen earned an average of 2.760, while the second highest group fell to an average of 1.904. The third quartile followed closely behind the second group with an average of 1.859, but the lowest group averaged only 1.226. The unclassified group was, of course, composed of some very good, some mediocre, and some very poor students. Their average for the first semester was 2.002. Table III summarizes the grade results for the first semester.

TABLE III
FIRST-SEMESTER AVERAGES FOR FRESHMEN BY QUARTILE
RANK IN HIGH SCHOOL CLASS

High School Quartile	Number Earning ist Semester Grades	FIRST SEMESTER AVERAGES
First	118	2.760
Second	116	1.904
Third	61	1.859
Fourth	31	1.226
Unclassified	72	2.002
Total	398	2.134

It is interesting to note that five freshmen from the highest quartile earned all A grades for their first semester, while there were no all-A students from the other groups, except one from the unclassified group whose high school record rather definitely placed him in the upper

quartile of his graduating class, although his principal failed to indicate his rank. Although 234, or 58.79 per cent, of the freshmen who earned grades for the first semester ranked in the upper half of their graduating classes, only 218, or 54.77 per cent, of the entire group earned average grades of C or better. Of the 218 freshmen who earned C averages or better, 103, or 47.24 per cent, were from the first quartile group. The number of failing grades and their distribution among the quartiles was also interesting. In the first quartile, with 118 earning first-semester grades, only eight students, or 6.78 per cent, earned a grade of F. In the second quartile with 116 students, 38, or 32.75 per cent, received a grade or grades of F. Twenty-one, or 34.42 per cent, of the third quartile earned F's, while 18 freshmen, or 58 per cent, of the lowest quartile received grades of F. Thirty, or 41.66 per cent, of the freshmen in the unclassified group earned F's. Table IV shows the distribution among the quartile groups of the number of freshmen who earned A's and F's for their first semester.

TABLE IV
DISTRIBUTION OF A'S AND F'S AMONG QUARTILE
GROUPS, FIRST SEMESTER

High School Quartile	Number of Freshmen	GRADE OR	N EARNING GRADES OF SEMESTER	GRADE OR	N EARNING GRADES OF SEMESTER
		Number	Per Cent	Number	Per Cent
First	118	63	54.23	8	6.78
Second	116	19	16.37	38	32.75
Third	6 <b>r</b>	10	16.39	21	34.42
Fourth	31	I	3.22	18	34·42 58.00
Unclassified	72	26	36.11	30	41.66
Тотац	398	119	29.89	115	28.89

From the first quartile group of 118 students, 91, or 77.12 per cent, earned averages equal to or better than the average for the entire group of freshmen—2.134. Only 34, or 32.76 per cent, of the 116 in the second quartile earned averages of 2.134 or above, while in the third quartile group, 15, or 24.59 per cent, earned averages equal to or better than 2.134. Only 2 averages, or 6.45 per cent, from the lowest quartile group were 2.134 or above. Thirty-one, or 43.06 per cent, of the 72 in the unclassified group earned averages of 2.134 or better.

Of the 398 freshmen who earned grades for the first semester, only 333 completed the second semester. The 65 students who did not complete their second semester were divided among the quartiles as follows: first quartile, 11; second quartile, 20; third quartile, 10;

TABLE V NUMBER AND PERCENTAGE IN DIFFERENT QUARTILES WITH STANDINGS ABOVE AND BELOW THE FRESHMAN AVERAGE

High School	Number in			Below Freshman Average	
QUARTILE	GROUP	Number	Per Cent	Number	Per Cent
First	118	91	77.12	27	22.88
Second	116	38	32.76	78	67.24
Third	61	15	24.59	46	75.41
Fourth	31	2	6.45	29	93-55
Unclassified	72	31	43.06	41	56.94
TOTAL	398	177	44 - 47	231	55.53

fourth quartile, 9; and unclassified, 15. The first-semester average for the 65 students who completed the first semester's work without returning for the second semester was 1.339, while the first-semester average for students who also completed the second semester was 2.262. This would indicate that, in general, poorer students were discouraged after one semester, while the better ones survived. This fact is also at least partially shown in the averages for the second semester, which tended to be higher than the first-semester averages for each group. Better averages for the second semester can also be attributed to the fact that students should be better oriented after a few months and should be able to exercise better study habits.

The second-semester average for the 333 freshmen who completed both semesters was 2.233. For each of the quartile groups the averages for the second semester were as follows: first quartile, 2.766; second quartile, 2.037; third quartile, 1.876; fourth quartile, 1.122, and the unclassified group, 2.179. The academic average for students of the Southern Branch, University of Idaho, for the second semester was 2.366. Table VI gives a summary of the second-semester averages for freshmen.

Among the second-semester averages were five all-A students from the first quartile group and one from the unclassified group, but none

TABLE VI SECOND-SEMESTER AVERAGES FOR FRESHMEN BY QUARTILE RANK IN HIGH SCHOOL CLASS

HIGH SCHOOL QUARTILE	Number Earning 2nd Semester Grades	Second Semester Averages
First	107	2.766
Second	96	1.876
Third	51	1.876
Fourth	22	1.122
Unclassified	57	2.179
Total	333	2.233

from the other groups. The distribution of students who received A's and F's during the second semester is shown in Table VII.

Second-semester averages were higher for students who returned the next fall for a second year than for those students who did not return for a second year. The combined second-semester average for those not returning was 1.816, while the second-semester average of those who returned for a second year was 2.388.

TABLE VII DISTRIBUTION OF A'S AND F'S AMONG QUARTILE GROUPS, SECOND SEMESTER

High School Quartile	Number of Freshmen	NUMBER OF GRADE OR C		Freshmen Earning Grade or Grades of F—Second Semester	
		Number	Per Cent	Number	Per Cent
First	107	64	59.81	8	7.47
Second	96	23	23.95	35	36.45
Third	51	11	21.56	17	33-33
Fourth	22	2	9.09	17	77.27
Unclassified	57	21	36.84	17	29.82
TOTAL	333	121	36.33	94	28.22

Two hundred thirty-seven, or 55.76 per cent, of the original group of 425 returned for their second year at the Southern Branch, University of Idaho. From the first quartile group which entered in the fall of 1938, 89, or 72.95 per cent, of the original 122 returned for a second year in September, 1939. Sixty-three, or 51.21 per cent, of the second quartile group of 123 returned for the year 1939-40, while

39, or 60 per cent, of the original third quartile group re-registered for a second year. Eight, or 22.22 per cent, of the fourth quartile group returned, and 40, or 50.62 per cent, of the unclassified students returned. Table VIII summarizes the above information.

TABLE VIII

NUMBER AND PERCENTAGE OF STUDENTS RETURNING
FOR SECOND YEAR

HIGH SCHOOL QUARTILE	Number of Freshmen Who Entered September, 1938	Number Returning for Second Year September, 1939	Percentage of Original Number Returning for Second Year
First	122	89	72.95
Second	123	63	51.21
Third	65	39	60.00
Fourth	36	8	22.22
Unclassified	79	38	48.15
TOTAL	425	237	55.76

Third-semester averages for students who returned for a second year were very noticeably higher than those for the freshman year in each of the quartile groups. The academic average for the Southern Branch, University of Idaho, for the first semester, 1939-40, was 2.342, while the combined average of the 237 second-year students was 2.555. Third-semester students who had ranked in the first quartile of their high school classes earned an average of 2.905, or very nearly a B average, for that semester. The average for the second quartile group for its third semester's work was 2.342—the same as the average for all students enrolled in academic divisions for that semester. The third quartile average for the first semester of the second year rose above the C level to 2.088. Fourth quartile students also improved during their third semester, but still averaged only 1.932. The unclassified group averaged 2.638 for its third semester in college. Table IX summarizes third-semester averages for all groups.

It is apparent that in general we can expect scholastic rank in high school to determine very largely what success the student will have in college. If, however, we considered individual cases, we would find that some first-quartile freshmen failed to maintain even a C average throughout their first year, while some members of the lowest quartile group were able to earn high C averages for the year. However, none of the fourth-quartile group earned higher than a 2.846 average for

TABLE IX
THIRD-SEMESTER AVERAGES BY QUARTILE RANK IN
HIGH SCHOOL CLASS

HIGH SCHOOL QUARTILE	Number Returning for Third Semester	THIRD SEMESTER AVERAGES
First	89	2.905
Second	63	2.342
Third	39	2.088
Fourth	8	1.932
Unclassified	38	2.638
Total	237	2.555

any semester. The most unpredictable group, according to this study, is the second quartile, which in many cases during the first year failed to maintain records that would normally be expected of them.

### HISTORICAL TREATMENT OF THE INSTITUTION IN THE CATALOGS OF THE LIBERAL ARTS COLLEGES OF PENNSYLVANIA

#### EUGENE P. BERTIN

The present study is an attempt to find out what historical aspects of the institution are presented in the catalogs of liberal arts colleges, and to indicate the treatment accorded these aspects. Fifty of the fifty-seven institutions of this kind in Pennsylvania that are accredited by the State Council of Education were chosen for this investigation. Every item within the meaning of the term "history" was recognized and recorded. Where irrelevant data were incorporated in the history the information was disregarded.

The quantitative treatment of the history varied from one-half page to twelve pages, with a median of two and one-half pages. The colleges having the most extended treatment were neither the oldest nor the largest; and those having the briefest sketches were neither the youngest nor the smallest. There is no apparent criterion as to the length of the historical treatment other than the whim or the discretion of the individual who prepared the statement.

The specific historical elements mentioned in the catalog statements fell into about seventeen divisions. The table which follows indicates the frequency with which each of these seventeen elements occurred in the fifty catalogs.

### HISTORICAL ELEMENTS AND THEIR FREQUENCY OF OCCURRENCE IN THE CATALOGS OF FIFTY LIBERAL ARTS COLLEGES IN PENNSYLVANIA

Historical Elements	$\boldsymbol{F}$	requency
Founding		46
Aims and philosophy		42
Charter		
Church relation		37
Location		32
Buildings		32
Evolution and growth		
Endowments and gifts		28
Trustees		
Departments and schools		
Degrees		
Presidents		21
Curriculum		

Faculty	12
Architectural plan	10
Graduate school	8
Off-campus centers	7

Other historical elements, peculiar to the catalogs of only a few institutions, included anniversaries, dissentions, claims of primacy, praise of patrons, first diplomas, synoptic histories, notable visitors, religious centers, and distinguished graduates.

There is a discernible correlation between frequency and chronology with reference to the elements of history contained in the catalogs. The items that appear most frequently are the items most closely related to the beginnings of the institutions.

The treatment of each of these historical elements will be examined in some detail, the arrangement being in the order of their frequency.

Founding. It was not always an easy task to identify in one of these college catalogs the date of the institution's founding, for the reason that the act of founding may take various forms. It may consist of establishing a forerunner institution which developed into the college under consideration; it may be the laying of a cornerstone; or the time the decision to establish a college was made by a body with proper authority; or the date of a bequest to begin an institution; or even the time the charter was granted.

Forty-six of the fifty colleges gave the date of founding in one form or another. In approximately one-third of the forty-six colleges which gave dates of founding, the date given corresponded with the charter date.

Twenty-three of the institutions reported a founding date earlier than that of the charter. This sequence seems to be explained by one or the other of two circumstances. First, some colleges were well established and even in operation before the formalities of securing a charter were completed. Second, in some cases unchartered forerunner institutions functioned for years before a charter was sought. This latter situation applied especially to institutions controlled by a church, in which case the church constituted the source of authority in lieu of the State.

The wide span of years between the founding date and the charter date in some of the institutions leads one to suspect that the information is either grossly inaccurate or incomplete. It is possible that the historical account in some instances neglects to record the date of the original charter and gives the date of a new or revised charter without specifying this latter fact. This possibility, together with the fact that many institutions did operate without charters for many years, probably accounts for most of the seeming discrepancies, such as that of one institution with a span of forty-six years intervening between date of founding and date of charter, another of fifty-six years, and a third of fifty-eight years.

Only twenty-six of the fifty catalogs mentioned the name of the founder. In many cases this omission may be attributed to the non-existence of an individual founder. Approximately a score of the colleges were founded or established by groups of interested persons, church synods, or other social organizations. Not infrequently the catalog historians paid generous tribute to a personal prime mover; but in cases where the institution was impersonally established, no founder, of course, could be named.

In ten institutions, the name of the college was identical with the name of the founder, or of the person in whose honor the institution was dedicated; in eighteen institutions, a founder or patron was named, but the college had adopted a different designation. No founder's name was given for twenty of the colleges, and no reference whatever to the founding was made in two instances.

Aims and Philosophy. As a basis for the establishment of an institution, the "founding fathers" almost invariably expressed their motivating aims and philosophy. These original aims may or may not correspond with the present purposes and functions of the college. Both sets of objectives were rather consistently found in the catalogs. Since this paper is limiting itself to the historical aspects of the institution, only the philosophy enunciated at the time of the inception of the institution will be considered. Forty-two of the catalogs contained such statements.

A diversity of points of view was expressed in the statements of aims and philosophy. Practically all declared themselves tolerant of every creed. Various emphases, however, were given in other respects. For example, culture was the dominant note of some; Christian ideals, of others; patriotism and democracy, of a few; technical and professional education, of still others. While practically all disclaimed narrow denominationalism, at least a dozen of the colleges placed strong emphasis on religion in their original pronouncements.

A few colleges declared specific patriotic motives at the time they

were founded. Influenced by the Constitutional Convention, and doubtless inspired by the spirit of distinguished patrons, one college proclaimed as its aim, in the early years of its history, "... to diffuse knowledge in order to preserve republican government." With something of this same spirit, another announced military training as one of its aims.

Some of the statements of aims and philosophy did not lend themselves very well to classification. They were distinct, if not unique, expressing individualistic points of view. Some samples follow: "The value of small classes"; "White race helping the colored race to train leaders"; "The humanism and religion of John Amos Comenius"; "The popular education of poor children"; "For students of limited means"; and "To give young ladies the same education and advantages as young men".

It is not difficult to perceive in these statements the leaven of democratic principles at work in higher education. The aims and philosophies of these prime movers in the establishment of liberal arts colleges may appear widely diversified on the surface, but there is present underneath most of these enunciations the common denominator of democratic educational opportunity.

Charter. Allusions to some form of legal document or official source in connection with the establishment of the institution was made in forty-one of the fifty catalogs. Nine made no reference to their charters, two others mentioned charters but gave no date.

Dates given frequently did not refer to the charter as such, even in the thirty-nine colleges which were specific as to time. Some gave the data on which a court approved the institution or its program; some gave the year or month of the act of the General Assembly; a few indicated the time at which the State Council of Education approved their applications; others referred to articles of incorporation; one found it proper to publish the date on which indentures from the Penns were received; and of course several named the charter in giving the date.

Other special conditions under which the institution referred to its charter may be mentioned. In some instances the date did not refer to the original charter of the college, but rather to the time the original document was amended, or at which the college had its name changed, merged with another institution, or otherwise changed its status.

The colleges were neither consistent nor complete in giving dates

of their charters. Dates of amendments were sometimes given without any record of the original charter. Changes of status were recorded, sometimes with and often without, any mention of the fact or date of modification of the charter. Three catalogs contained exten-

sive quotations from the original charters.

Church Relation. The church affiliations, which played such a vital part in the establishment of most of the liberal arts colleges in Pennsylvania, were accorded relatively large space in the historical treatment of the institution. Church leaders were praised, denominational organizations were described, philosophies were explained, and in some instances several paragraphs of church history were presented.

Thirty-seven of the fifty colleges indicated their church relations. Among the thirteen colleges not mentioning any church affiliation, some may have been remiss in this, while others may have had no

such relation to report.

Location. While practically all the catalogs contained some form of description of the location of the institution, only thirty-two presented this information from the historical point of view. Such terms as the following were used in describing the present site of the college with a view, presumably, to attracting prospective students— "central", "healthful", "historic", "picturesque mountains", "quiet hills", "residential woodland", "spot of beauty", "lovely plateau", "invigorating clime", "peaceful valley", and the like. Several colleges reported the changes in location that had accompanied their development.

Descriptions of historical significance were presented by a few institutions. One college, for example, portrayed at some length the character of the population that had settled in the locality; another called attention to the fact that its site had been a center of religious culture for many generations; another made clear that the founding trustees had been attracted because of the beauty and strategic location of the place; and still another gave an entire page to the battle marking the turning point of the Civil War, which was fought on the

site of that institution.

Buildings. As a part of the historical treatment of the institution, most of the catalogs contained the names of the buildings on the campus. Thirty-two listed the campus structures in more or less chronological order of construction, giving the dates and frequently the main circumstances of their building. These circumstances usually included the necessity for a new building, the names of benefactors who assisted in financing the construction, and occasionally some reference to the style of architecture. Of particular historical interest was the mention of the first building used or erected by the institution. This was done in the catalogs of three colleges. The number of buildings and the acreage of the campus were items emphasized by many college catalogs.

Evolution and Growth. Twenty-nine of the colleges mentioned certain incidents or stages relating to their historical development. These items comprised the reorganization of the institution, a change of classification, expansion of facilities, increase in enrolment, change

of policy, and the like.

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Something less than a score of the colleges gave an account of their successive reorganizations under new names and classifications. These evolutionary stages threw considerable light on the history of the institution. Periods of unusual growth in enrolment, plant facilities, faculty, curricula, and the like, were indicated by at least six of the colleges. The new policy of admitting women to schools formerly limited to men was also a factor of unusual growth in several institutions. Interruptions in the growth of the institution due to fires, controversies, wars, financial crises, and other causes were also described in some of the catalogs.

Endowments and Gifts. Many forms of gifts were included among the historical information in twenty-eight of the fifty catalogs. While the information was not sufficiently explicit to make possible precise classifications, gifts to the institutions were of the following general types: campaigns and subscriptions, estates and bequests, endowments, foundations, library gifts, buildings, appropriations, investments, land grants, and scholarship funds. Distinctions between such terms as investments, endowments, estates, bequests, contributions, gifts, and

the like were loosely drawn in these historical accounts.

Trustees. Every catalog contained a list of the present trustees, but since this paper is limited to the historical treatment of the institution, these lists were ignored and cognizance given only to the mention of trustees of earlier periods. Under this limitation, the information comprised such items as how the trustees were appointed, their powers, the number on the board, and occasionally a special or peculiar situation that had arisen.

A few items of special information about trustees were mentioned

by three of the institutions. In the catalog of one of the colleges appeared a complete list of the names of presidents of the board during the entire history of the institution. Another published the names of four signers of the Declaration of Independence who had served on the original board of trustees of that institution. A serious rift in the organization at another institution gave rise to two separate boards of trustees.

Departments and Schools. The record of the development of departments and schools in the catalogs of the fifty institutions studied was incomplete and fragmentary. Fewer than half of the catalogs contained any mention of such developments, and where mention of them was made, it was frequently casual and partial. Of the twenty-three colleges mentioning such items, ten made some reference to departments, and thirteen to schools. The distinction between a department and a school was by no means clear in the histories.

Degrees. Information, in most cases very slight, about academic degrees was given in the historical treatment of twenty-three institutions. In the greatest number of cases, the point mentioned regarding degrees was that the power to grant them was incorporated in the charter. Other catalogs listed the degrees which the college was authorized to award. A few indicated the degree fields, and still fewer

the date of the first degree granted by the institution.

Presidents. Reference was made to past presidents in the catalogs of twenty-one institutions. Seventeen of these gave complete lists of these executives in chronological order, while the others mentioned some item or incident of special interest regarding a particular president.

Curricula. Information concerning curricula was scattered and fractional, only fifteen institutions making any allusion to this phase of their history. Perhaps some allowance should be made, however, for the references to departments and schools previously described.

Faculty. Occasional references to the faculty during the historical development of the institution appeared in twelve of the fifty catalogs. These references consisted in the mentioning of an outstanding member, affiliation of the group, the first faculty, or other singular facts.

Architectural Plan. In an earlier section it was pointed out that thirty-two of the catalogs contained some mention of the buildings of the institutions. In only ten, however, was there any reference to an architectural plan of the campus. Even in these relatively few in-

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stances, it should be noted, the allusions to a plan were frequently vague.

This fact is evident from samples of these allusions, such as, "Long-range plan adopted"; "Architect studied Capitol Group at Washington, D.C."; "Campus transformed by new building development"; "Buildings are grouped around the oval on College Hill"; "Thirteen buildings situated on campus adjacent to wood lot and college farm"; "General plan for future buildings"; and "The Tower Group of buildings."

Graduate Schools. It is probable that some of the schools included in the section on departments and schools, were in fact graduate schools. However, they were not so designated, and were therefore not included under the title of that section.

In eight of the catalogs, reference was made specifically to graduate schools. The nature of these references may be understood from examples like the following: "A graduate school for each department: 100 candidates, the limit for each school"; "A.B. degree required for admission; exclusively a graduate school"; "Graduate school: 1911"; "Graduate study in Pharmacy, Chemistry, Bacteriology, Biology"; "University status in 1907"; "Graduate school in Medicine, Business, Fine Arts, Law, Education, Engineering, Educational Research"; and "Graduate colleges: 1925."

Off-Campus Centers. Only seven of the fifty institutions reported off-campus centers, and some of these are so recent and of such nature as to render them of uncertain pertinence to the history of the college. However, references to off-campus centers are here set forth in accordance with the findings in the catalogs: "A game preserve under the Department of Biology"; "A junior college instituted in another city"; "Evening classes in the heart of the city"; "A farm used by the college"; "Medical and Fine Arts Center"; "An Observatory 1866 and a Downtown Division 1926"; and "A Summer Center and Evening School begun in 1929."

Unique Historical Elements. The remaining historical elements treated in the fifty college catalogs included in this study were practically unique, most of them appearing only once, and none more than three times.

Significant anniversaries were mentioned by three of the colleges. The same number of catalogs carried the story of serious dissentions in their respective institutions. Claims of primacy, or relative primacy, in connection with founding, establishing graduate schools and the like, were made by three others. Sufficient significance was attached to the first awarding of diplomas by two of the historians to make this event a part of the record. In two instances the narrative covered the evolution of the principal incidents or mileposts. One institution manifested some pride in recording visits to its campus by three presidents of the United States during their respective terms of office. Another recounted the visits of certain members of the Congress and revolutionary officers when the college facilities were used to accommodate the wounded of the War for Independence.

While many of the colleges claimed to have contributed to the spread of Christianity, two went much further than this. One institution, for example, utilized four of its seven pages of historical matter for tracing of the development of the Church over a period of five centuries. Special reference was made to the policy of spreading the faith through educational institutions. The story culminated, of course, with the establishment in Pennsylvania of the college under discussion. In the same manner, another gave an account of the early beginnings of a religious movement which spread to America and took root in Pennsylvania, with the result that the particular community became a center of religious culture.

Two institutions expressed high pride in their distinguished graduates, including an unusual number of congressmen, judges, college presidents, and one President of the United States. Two of the catalogs devoted more than casual praise to patrons of their respective institutions. Several other colleges gave milder recognition to the men who

were associated with their founding and earlier history.

A few additional items contained in the catalogs must be mentioned to complete the account. Widespread and enthusiastic interest on the part of pioneers in the founding of the college was reported in the catalog of one institution. Another made a point of the issuance of its first catalog. Distinguished names were mentioned in the catalog of another as having been commemorated through the establishment of perpetual scholarships. "No tuition from the beginning" was the singular boast of one college; and the fact that three early instructors "preached, taught, and farmed" was a distinction claimed in the catalog of another institution. A final item of miscellany was the statement of a woman's college that the proximity of four colleges for men made it possible for students to enjoy "a reasonable acquaint-

ance with the opposite sex, without the disadvantages and distractions of a coeducational institution."

Summary. The objective of this study was to determine what historical elements of the institutions are treated in the catalogs of fifty of the accredited liberal arts colleges of Pennsylvania, and to discern something of the scope and quality of the treatment given.

The amount of space assigned to the historical account of the institution ranged from one-half to twelve pages, the median being two and one-half pages. Seventeen historical elements recur in the catalogs with more or less regularity—eight of them appearing in from 50 to 85 per cent of the publications, and the other nine, in from 15 to 50 per cent. No catalog contained all seventeen elements; and no catalog contained fewer than two of them.

The historical treatment of the institutions was lacking in consistency, completeness, and even in accuracy. No common pattern was discernible, with a few possibe exceptions. Even such essentials in the history of an institution as establishment through a charter, the construction of a plant, administrative personnel, instructional staff, general program, library service, growth and expansion, endowment, and location were not all touched on historically. Often, too, when they were represented in the histories, the treatment was fragmentary, and only the barest allusion was made to some of these major aspects of the development of the college. Whim, it would seem, determined what historical elements should be incorporated as well as the scope and quality of the treatment.

From the examination of the historical sections of the fifty catalogs represented here, there appears convincing evidence that these institutions are not capitalizing adequately on their opportunities. A little investigation on the part of the college historian or editor of the catalog would readily bring to light all the essential information needed for the brief but relatively complete account that is suitable for the college catalog. If these complete and authentic data were then carefully assembled, properly organized, and effectively narrated, the product would doubtless not only reflect creditably on the institution, but would really reveal the soul and genius that distinguish it from other institutions. This would enrich and strengthen both its tradition and its services.

# RECORDS AND COUNSELING IN THE SMALL COLLEGE

#### FORREST H. KIRKPATRICK

In the long development of a comprehensive program of student personnel administration at Bethany College there has been one basic assumption, viz., the responsibility of the college is to serve the student rather than to preserve institutional machinery and mechanics. A rather definite chart of reorganization has been followed for the last eight years with ample time for determining the best procedures and for faculty and students to adjust themselves to changes and reorganization. Consequently the whole plan has moved into practice without turmoil or confusion.

The old conception of the registrar's office has been buried and the traditional dean's office has been translated. We have brought together in one office and under the direction of one officer, all of the records and agencies that have to do with the academic, personal, and developmental guidance of students. The officer in charge is called the Dean of Students. The college is small, with an enrolment of approximately 400; hence this centralization has not made the office management overly complicated or difficult. In fact, it is much more efficient and economical. With a trained clerical and stenographic staff, we have been able to effect considerable financial saving because there there is a substantial decrease in duplication and overhead. Such an organizational plan means that the college can have at least one specialist who can direct and co-ordinate all of the personnel functions of the institution and represent the personnel point of view in administrative councils.

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It is natural to suppose that there might be some criticism of such a centralized control of academic and personnel records. However, the faculty and officers are fast recognizing the central records office as a service bureau handling efficiently and for the best interests of all, the various matters committed to it. Faculty members and students make free and ample use of its resources. A telephone call from the various officers of administration now provides each one, not only with accurate information regarding a student, but a comprehensive and cumulative summary covering all phases of his life and activity

on the campus, and a rather complete history of his educational career and interests before he came to us.

In this central office are also the results of the large battery of intelligence, achievement and vocational-interest tests, the reports of health examinations, and all data that pertain to the welfare and activities of each and every student. Here also is assembled a rather comprehensive array of information about vocational opportunities for college men and women, graduate and professional school catalogs, and scholarship bulletins; and from the office is issued a series of bulletins through the year with discussions and information as to vocational and educational careers. This central bureau, known as the Admissions and Personnel Office, is a veritable beehive of activities relating to testing, recording, counseling, guidance, and education.

There is no standard program that can be used in every situation, and I would not suggest that every small college follow our scheme. When we finally find some instrument or technique for measuring the results of guidance and personnel work, I am certain that it will be a device to determine how well the job has been done and not how orthodox have been our procedures, nor how cleverly and mag-

nificently we have built our machinery.

The Admissions and Personnel Office and the Dean of Students, of course, are not the whole show. A dozen of our most able faculty members are assigned the responsibility of being counselors for freshmen. This means that each freshman has a faculty counselor to whom he can go regularly for advice regarding personal or educational problems. The contacts with our counselors are not incidental, for the program is set up so that the student sees his counselor regularly. When the student has elected his major subject—usually in the freshman or sophomore year—the professor in charge of the major department becomes his counselor. Thus the counseling service is continuous through all the college years. These counselors, while ministering to all the needs of the student, have as their most important function the interpretation and presentation of sound educational and vocational objectives.

The "faculty counselor" is a familiar term in collegiate nomenclature, but in actual practice only one side of the relationship between student and college has usually been taken into account—that of the mechanics of college procedure which is surely the less important side. Our aim is to understand each student as thoroughly as possible and to give him careful guidance in the light of that understanding; this to be done not in any incidental fashion, but with the total resources of the institution brought to the service of the student and organized

with this one function clearly in mind.

The faculty counselors at Bethany believe that the personal bond between the college and the student it proposes to educate should have depth and significance. Friendly interviews with dean or president are all very well, but the college that proposes to secure and hold the serious intellectual attention of a student must demand it from the outset in a most emphatic fashion, and this means some personal contact with the best teachers, sufficiently prolonged, to fix the pitch that it is desired to maintain. Oddy enough this procedure has intensified the truth, rapidly dawning upon all of us, that if a student is to be educated, he must do it himself. In our efforts to personalize the educational experience for college students we have come to see more clearly that the college resources and staff should stimulate, guide, and help, but that the student alone determines how much of "the waters of learning" he shall take.

# GEOGRAPHICAL DISTRIBUTION OF LIBERAL ARTS STUDENTS IN PENNSYLVANIA COLLEGES

#### FRANKLIN I. SHEEDER

One of the reasons frequently advanced for the selection of a particular college is the fact that it draws its students from a wide geographical area. It is assumed that this helps to assure a cosmopolitan environment in that it brings students in contact with persons from different culture groups, and thus has a tendency to broaden the experiences of all. That there is something to be said in defense of this proposition is recognized, but the fact should not be overlooked that in most American colleges and universities the bulk of the students come from communities which are in relatively close proximity to the institutions concerned. In this connection, Dean Max McConn has this to say:

It is an established fact that all American colleges and universities, even the largest and most famous ones, draw a major fraction of their students from within a radius of one hundred and fifty miles; a good many not very famous colleges draw as much as eighty per cent of their enrolment from a similar area. Plainly, therefore, mere geographical nearness is one of the principal bases on which students and parents actually choose colleges.<sup>1</sup>

In order to discover what the facts are with regard to the geographical distribution of students in Pennsylvania colleges, a study of enrolment data in nineteen representative institutions was made. The institutions selected are all on the accredited list of the Association of American Universities, and are fairly well distributed throughout the State. Since there are approximately sixty colleges and universities in the State of Pennsylvania (exclusive of State Teachers Colleges) the group selected represents about one-third of the total number of institutions of collegiate grade within the State. Data were obtained from the catalogues or student directories of the nineteen institutions studied, and were limited to liberal arts students. Data reported are for the academic year 1938-39.

The home residence of each student was located on a map and the distance from the college determined according to the scale provided with the map, using a straight line as the arbitrary measuring stick.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Max McConn. Planning for College. Frederick A. Stokes Co., New York, 1937. p. 70.

A study of the material presented in Tables I and II indicates that an average of approximately two-thirds (67.8 per cent) of the liberal

TABLE I
GEOGRAPHICAL DISTRIBUTION OF STUDENTS IN NINETEEN
PENNSYLVANIA COLLEGES

Institution		Percentage of Students from Each of Six Areas						NUM- BER OF	Num- BER OF FOR-	
		25 Miles or less	25-50 Miles	50-75 Miles	75-100 Miles	100- 200 Miles	200- 500 Miles	Over 500 Miles	STATES REPRE- SENTED	PICN
Allegheny		23.3	14.0	11.2	34.2	8.9	7.9	0.5	12	0
Bryn Mawr	465	16.5	6.7	5-4	9.7	23.7	23.0	15.0	20	12
Bucknell	1269	17.9	8.2	8.7	8.2	38.3	17.7	1.0	25	2
Dickinson	586	30.7	6.9	12.0	II.I	37.3	1.0	1.0	9	3
Franklin and										
Marshall	911	30.5	10.8	11.4	11.9	27.4	7.0	1.0	11	5
Gettysburg	653	29.6	19.1	3.2	21.4	19.0	7.1	0.5	10	3
Grove City	912	45.9	27.5	9.4	6.4	2.3	8.3	0.2	10	0
Haverford	314	38.5	6.6	4.4	9.2	11.2	18.5	11.6	24	6
Lafayette	615	23.0	21.8	20.9	19.7	4.I	7.5	3.0	16	6
Lehigh	709	18.2	12.9	23.9	5.0	23.7	10.0	6.3	23	4
Muhlenberg	493	57.2	16.6	14.6	7.5	1.4	2.0	0.8	9	I
Penn State	1401	10.9	5.9	7.9	11.2	53.5	10.0	0.6	14	3
Seton Hill	394	36.0	21.0	4.3	6.5	8.6	12.8	10.8	23	1
Swarthmore	736	25.1	7.6	5.2	25.4	5-7	15.4	15.6	32	12
Pennsylvania	1472	61.9	6.7	6.5	11.4	6.1	4.8	2.5	24	14
Ursinus	547	53.0	22.7	11.0	7.5	3.6	I.I	1.1	10	0
Washington and					.					
Jefferson	543	30.4	27.3	6.8	8.5	11.4	5.8	9.8	19	7
Westminster	658	32.8	26.4	21.7	7.5	4.5	4.1	3.0	13	0
Wilson	393	6.0	9.3	3.6	8.4	53.2	15.5	4.0	18	9
Average		30.9	14.7	10.1	12.1	18.2	9.4	4.6		

arts students were drawn from an area within a 100-mile radius of the respective colleges. The only outstanding exceptions were Bryn Mawr, which has a relatively uniform spread for the various geographical groupings, Bucknell, Penn State, and Wilson. The last three colleges named are located more than 100 miles from the larger population centers of Pennsylvania and adjoining states, which doubtless accounts in some measure for their showing. Two of the colleges, Muhlenberg and Ursinus, drew more than 90 per cent of their students from an area within a 100-mile radius. These institutions are located within 100 miles of Philadelphia and metropolitan New York. Five of the colleges, Allegheny, Grove City, Lafayette, University of Pennsylvania, and Westminster, drew more than 80 per cent of their students from

TABLE II
PERCENTAGE OF STUDENTS LIVING WITHIN 100-MILE RADIUS
OF INSTITUTION ATTENDED

Allegheny Bryn Mawr Bucknell Dickinson Franklin and Marshall Gettysburg Grove City Haverford Lafayette Lehigh	38. 43. 60. 64. 73. 89. 58.
Dickinson Franklin and Marshall Gettysburg Grove City Haverford Lafayette	60.7 64.6 73.3 89.2
Dickinson Franklin and Marshall Gettysburg Grove City Haverford Lafayette	64.6 73.3 89.3 58.7
Gettysburg. Grove City Haverford Lafayette	73 · 3 89 · 3 58 · 7
Grove City Haverford Lafayette	89.2 58.7
Haverford Lafayette Lafayette	58.7
Lafayette	
	0-
	05.4
Adultification	60.0
Muhlenberg	95.9
Penn State	35.9
Seton Hill	67.8
Swarthmore	63.3
Pennsylvania	86.5
Ursinus	94.2
Washington and Jefferson	73.0
Westminster	88.4
Wilson	27.3

a similar radius. These institutions are also located close to large population centers.

Only four of the nineteen colleges, Bryn Mawr, Haverford, Seton Hill, and Swarthmore, drew more than 10 per cent of their students from territory beyond a 500-mile radius. Washington and Jefferson drew 9.8 per cent of its students from a similar area.

The colleges which came closest to the average distribution are Bryn Mawr, Lafayette, Lehigh, Seton Hill, Swarthmore, and Washington and Jefferson.

In all cases nine or more states were represented in the student bodies of the colleges studied. Bryn Mawr, Bucknell, Haverford, Lehigh, Seton Hill, Swarthmore, and the University of Pennsylvania drew their student clientele from more than twenty states. In fifteen of the nineteen colleges, one or more foreign students were enrolled, the honors for the highest numbers going to the University of Pennsylvania, Bryn Mawr, and Swarthmore.

This study tends to confirm the finding that in most of our colleges "geographical nearness is one of the principal bases on which students and parents actually choose colleges." However, it may be affirmed that even in those colleges whose enrolments are limited to a relatively restricted geographical area, one may expect to find at least 5 per cent of the student population from outside the 100-mile limit.

#### THE FUTURE OF AMERICAN COLLEGES

RALPH W. TYLER

THIS topic has many ramifications. Some of us are interested in the future enrolments of the college, but I am not competent to speak on this phase. The recent data on population trends seem to show that a peak in enrolments will soon be reached and that the distribution of school and college population will be different in the future. Another phase of interest is the future size of the college. I do not propose to discuss the size of the student bodies in the colleges of the future, although there are indications that colleges can become too large and that the optimum size of student body is by no means the maximum size possible. I shall not speak about the length of the period of liberal education in the colleges of the future, although there is clearly no magic to the figure four and there are distinct possibilities that the colleges of the future will not consider the period of liberal education as exactly four years. Finally, I do not intend to discuss the future financing of liberal arts colleges, although the decreasing demand for outside capital in private enterprise suggests that endowments will have less importance in the financing of liberal arts colleges and that other means such as state and national scholarships may loom larger.

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I do want to discuss the educational program of the future American college because my experience has largely been gained from working with college faculties. The institution of the future which carries on the historic function of the liberal arts college may differ in name and form from our present colleges, but there is plenty of evidence to indicate that this historic function must be carried on by some kind of social institution. What changes are necessary if the American college is to carry on this function of providing a liberal education?

1. The college must clarify its purposes and seek to formulate its objectives explicitly. In formulating the objectives, the college cannot depend upon the traditional statement of purposes which have come to be vague and meaningless to many of its faculty members. It will be necessary for the faculty to consider carefully five elements from which any statement of purposes must be derived. These elements are:

- a. A careful examination of the demands of society outside the college.
- b. A study of the college students themselves—their abilities, their interests, their perplexities, their hopes, and their aspirations.
- c. A re-examination of the possible contributions that each field of subject matter may make. In order to do this, it will be necessary to ask what contribution can this field make to the general education of all students rather than to ask what are the introductory facts, principles, and techniques of this field. The former question throws light upon the contributions the subject may make to liberal education while the latter question is likely to elicit only suggestions for the preliminary preparation of specialists.
- d. The educational implications of the social philosophy which the college accepts. Frequently the accepted college philosophy is not in harmony with the program of the college. If such philosophy is vital, it should be given careful consideration in selecting the purposes which will be given major emphasis.
- e. Finally, any formulation of purposes must involve a careful study of the psychology of learning in order to identify objectives which are attainable through education.
- 2. When a college faculty has gone through this study and soulsearching procedure in formulating its objectives, this statement of purposes should then become a conscious basis for the selection of the content of the college curriculum and program.
- 3. A third characteristic of the college of the future will be an increasing recognition of the importance of those objectives which are common to many fields and which require concerted effort on the part of all faculty members if they are to be attained rather than those purposes which are unique to each subject. Most of the important purposes of a college cannot be achieved in a single subject in a single year. Continuity is necessary as well as co-operative effort on the part of all faculty members. The compartmentalism so characteristic of present college programs will be largely broken down.
- 4. A fourth characteristic of the college of the future will be a greater recognition that learning in the college must be continuous with life outside the college. Increasingly, education will provide a means for interpreting all of the student's life; it will provide opportunity for him to participate in the rebuilding of the common life, thus giving increased meaning and importance to his learning.
- 5. The college of the future will more clearly recognize both types of learning activities, those that provide new experiences and new

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ideas for students and those that provide an opportunity for the organization and interpretation of experiences and ideas students already have had.

6. The college of the future will provide a greater variety of media of expression. At present we concentrate too largely upon verbal expression, whereas young people need to learn to express themselves in a variety of ways. Music, art, and other media will become increasingly important in the college program.

7. Finally, the future American college will work out a plan for the continuous study and improvement of the college program on the part of the faculty and administrative officers. This will involve a procedure in which the faculty will be formulating its objectives, consciously planning its work to achieve these objectives, making a careful appraisal of results, and re-planning in the light of the strengths and weaknesses disclosed by this appraisal. The college of the future will be viewed as a growing, developing organism and not as a perfect, finished product.

## NATIONAL DEFENSE AND THE COLLEGES

WILLIAM CRAIG SMYSER

At the outset of the first World War, military service in Great Britain was on a voluntary basis. Conscription was not adopted until months of bitter warfare had cost the lives of thousands of the best of Britain's youth, because, as always, it was the flower of the nation that answered first the call to arms. Later the blunder was recognized, and British statesmen deplored the needless loss of so much potential leadership, which was a crippling handicap to the subsequent conduct of the war, and indeed has had its effect upon the life of the nation ever since.

Determined to avoid England's mistake, the United States took prompt steps to conserve its potential officer personnel. Almost simultaneously with the declaration of war the National Selective Service act was passed. And the following autumn saw the Students' Army Training Corps in operation on campuses all over the country. Under the S.A.T.C. setup, students were in active military service, responsible to military authorities, and engaged in strenuous military training, with some academic work sandwiched in. Neither the colleges nor the military authorities look back on the result with any degree of satisfaction. The plan was largely a failure because it was an attempt to fuse two widely disparate activities. Such a fusion succeeds on a few campuses like Clemson, The Citadel, and V.M.I., but only by virtue of a permanent framework and wise leadership that knows how to reconcile the conflicting claims of the two disciplines and to strike a proper balance.

No one has suggested, in the present emergency, that the S.A.T.C. should be revived. The role that the colleges are to play in the defense program is still in an indeterminate state, and, if some War Department spokesmen reflect the Army's point of view, the present concern of the military authorities with the colleges is limited to siphoning off into the military forces whatever potential leadership is to be found in today's student bodies. General Hershey, representing the War Department, said as much last February at the Washington Conference

on Higher Education and Defense.

General Hershey's position would be tenable only if our sole present objective were to produce soldiers. The point is too obvious to require development. The nation needs soldiers, to be sure, and we shall have them in abundant numbers, equal in quality to any in the world, and superior in equipment to the fondest dreams of the dictators. Doing things by halves has never been an American failing. But soldiers can be raised in every community and trained in each of scores of cantonments. Technicians, doctors, pharmacists, engineers, linguists, recreational directors—these are as vital to the needs of national defense as are soldiers, and their training is a far slower and costlier process. Here, of course, is the primary function of higher education in the defense program. We cannot fulfill it unless we are prepared to resist the siphoning process which General Hershey would set in motion. And if we fail to fulfill it, we shall only be repeating the costly blunder of Great Britain in World War I, although it may not prove so costly for us unless we actually get into the war. But the nation is committed to the avoidance of any such blunder.

When deferments under the draft were authorized for college men until the close of the current school year, there was some muttering here and there about "privileged classes." In a democracy that phrase may be used with deadly effect. We cannot afford to be too sensitive about it, nor to lose sight of the fact that in any society in the world, great responsibilities entail great privileges. You can have neither one without the other. And to raise up men for the trained leadership without which the defense program will fail, you must first allow them a relatively long period of preparation, with reasonable security from interruption. The engineer or the surgeon or the artillery commander must first have been a student.

That is why the American Medical Association has taken steps to secure a provision whereby medical students and interns may defer military service until they are full-fledged doctors, when they will be infinitely more valuable to the armed forces. That is why the Association of American Colleges—to mention only one of numerous organizations—is urging that students not yet called by the beginning of the next college year be allowed a deferment until the following June. These suggestions have the authority of being grounded in plain common-sense and old-fashioned prudence. Moreover, there is nothing undemocratic about them, for one of the distinguishing traits of democracy is its willingness to give to every youth the opportunity to rise to such leadership as he is qualified to assume. The national interest and democratic practice both impel us to make sure that our

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best officer material is developed into officers, and not wasted in making cooks or mule skinners.

The training of technical experts is by no means the only contribution the colleges will make to the defense program. In times of national stress, when passions and prejudices rise to the fever point, when the voices of propaganda and self-interest and timidity and hatred all clamor for a hearing—then more than at any other time we need a steadying and calming influence. Someone must strike a balance by setting over against one another a multitude of conflicting claims and interests. Someone must hear all the evidence and weigh it, must speak with the calm voice of wisdom and tolerance to interpret the present in the light of the past. This is one of the highest services the

academic world can render in the present emergency.

Long before he became the nation's leader in one of its most crucial periods, Woodrow Wilson spoke eloquently of this balance-wheel function to which I am referring. "I have had sight," he said, "of the perfect place of learning in my thought: a free place, and a various, where no man could be and not know with how great a destiny knowledge had come into the world—itself a little world; but not perplexed, living with a singleness of aim not known without; the home of sagacious men, hard-headed and with a will to know, debaters of the world's questions every day and used to the rough ways of democracy . . . A place wherein to hear the truth about the past and to hold debate about the affairs of the present, with knowledge and without passion; like the world in having all men's life at heart, a place for men and all that concerns them; but unlike the world in its selfpossession, its thorough way of talk; its care to know more than the moment brings to light; slow to take excitement, its air pure and wholesome with a breath of faith . . . Who shall show us the way to this place?"1

As individuals, I suppose we all have moments when nothing seems quite so desirable as escape from the terrible pressure of modern life. If we could only take sanctuary, however briefly, from the newspapers and the radio, from the appalling spectacle of hatred and bloodshed and destruction that we are never allowed to forget! If we could only for a moment look dispassionately at the events about us, without ap-

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> "Princeton in the Nation's Service," from *The Forum*, December, 1896. Address delivered at the Princeton Sesquicentennial, October 21, 1896. *The Public Papers of Woodrow Wilson*, New York: Harper and Brothers, 1925, Vol. I, pp. 284-285.

prehension and without prejudice, so that we might feel sure that our perspective was true! For the "war of nerves" is no figure of speech, and its effects are not confined to the peoples of the belligerent powers. I am convinced that not only as individuals but as a nation we need more than anything else the objective point of view. Any institution that can offer it renders a service which is beyond price, and I know of

none so apt therefor as the colleges.

With that in mind, colleges and universities must more than ever be the bulwark of the civil liberties. During the last war we were now and then treated to the spectacle of this institution or that one, ululating after some suspected recusant. The sight would have been comic had it not implied so tragic an abandonment of the academic heritage of freedom. By and large the colleges kept their perspective in that hour of national trial; indeed, I think they fell more into the error of witch-hunting during the prosperous 'twenties. But the danger is never absent, for the pressure is always upon us in time of stress to hunt with the pack. If the fundamental liberties are not protected in the communities of enlightened men that form our colleges, then the prospect of their survival in the world of affairs is gloomy indeed, and we can lose them entirely without suffering a single blow from the forces of evil unleashed abroad.

One curious phenomenon of American life is the fact that, in spite of the huge sums spent annually upon higher education, in spite of the insistent demand that its benefits be opened to every class of society, many people continue to be totally unconvinced of its ability to make any practical impact upon workaday affairs. This is not true in industry, for in the main the world of business is aware of the significant contributions that have come to it from men of learning in classroom and laboratory. But it certainly is true in government, and the caricature of the "brain truster" as a chinless wonder wearing a mortar-board is all too accurate a portrayal of the common concept. We have not learned, as Britain has, to look to our universities to supply our statesmen, because we have never quite realized the enormous advantage possessed in practical statesmanship by the man of scholarly training and broad knowledge of the life of other peoples and other times. At the Washington conference to which I have referred, Mr. Frederick Osborn, Chairman of the War Department Committee on Education, Recreation, and Community Service, made the surprising statement that our colleges and universities have contributed practically nothing since the last war to our knowledge of human beings in their relations with each other. Such a statement reveals an amazing lack of knowledge of present-day developments on most campuses in the important fields of student personnel service, to say nothing of its bland disregard of the sociologist, the economist, and the psychologist. But it represents a misconception which is deeply rooted in the minds of many laymen.

I mention this misconception here because I think the defense program offers us a golden opportunity to correct it once for all. We are all familiar with the fact that those who disparage the colleges and universities as a source of genuine leadership are very prone to turn to them at once for counsel when difficulties arise. The phenomenon is analogous to the one which makes men who are by temper indifferent to religion, turn to it as if by instinct in times of sorrow or perplexity. In the light of the tensions and pressures of the moment our course is clear. If we can adapt our facilities to accomplish the swiftest and most effective possible training of the technicians and experts and leaders of all kinds that the defense program demands, it is not too much to say that we shall, in the eyes of the whole nation, have justified our existence. If we can provide a fixed star of historical truth to which society may be oriented, and a calm and reasoned evaluation of current events by which its course may be set, then we shall have earned for ourselves a new place in the public esteem. The task is exacting, but the rewards are great.

No one supposes that the present emergency will last forever. Whatever the outcome, the tension will one day relax, perhaps very suddenly, as it did in 1918. When that relief comes, it must not catch us flatfooted, as the colleges were caught before. In 1918 we were so geared up to war-time tempo, so engrossed in the single-minded determination to win the war, that little preparation had been made for the readjustment to follow, and the confusion that fell upon many campuses in the fall of 1919 amounted to turmoil. We are no less determined now than we were then to make our utmost contribution to the needs of the nation, however those needs evolve with the changing scene. But perhaps we can foresee, better than we could then, the adjustments that must follow. Very probably the present emergency will cut deeply into college enrolments, especially of men. Very possibly the end of the emergency will be followed by a sudden influx of students, as it was in 1919. There may be shortly thereafter

an economic crisis that will make the last depression seem harmless by comparison. All these things can be foreseen, and to a large extent

provided for. We must not disregard them.

Whatever the outcome of the war, the world to follow will be a very different place from the world of 1914, or even of 1939. Old values are being swept away; old shibboleths are being made meaningless; old privileges and old abuses will be submerged in the process of social reconstruction of which the war is only a phase. What the future holds for humanity no man can say. Whatever it may be, it will be a brighter future for America—more sane, more secure, more orderly—if our colleges and universities have kept pace with the times, have accepted the responsibilities implicit in their high calling, and have risen to their opportunities in the service of the nation.

#### EDITORIAL COMMENT

At the St. Louis meeting of the A.A.C.R., Millard E. Gladfelter, Editor of the Journal since October, 1936, resigned the editorship. When I was asked by the Executive Committee to assume the responsibilities of this position, I found it necessary to accept with the reservation that Mr. Gladfelter continue in charge until after the publication of the issue of January, 1941. Mr. Gladfelter kindly consented to this arrangement and it is under his direction that issues of the Journal previous to this one have been published. The present number has been assembled and edited in the new office at the University of Kentucky.

It has seemed advisable, however, that the membership and subscription files remain under the supervision of the former editor until after the Chicago meeting. Likewise, it has seemed best that any changes of policy or variations in the form and general character of the JOURNAL await a meeting of the Editorial Board to be held during the Twenty-Ninth Convention. The Board will welcome at that time suggestions from readers of the JOURNAL as to how it may be made to function more effectively in advancing the interests of higher edu-

cation and in promoting the work of the Registrar.

This is not to imply that the JOURNAL as it now appears is in need of any radical change. Building on the excellent foundation laid by previous editors, Mr. Gladfelter and his associates have brought the JOURNAL to a place of high rank among educational periodicals. It is now a publication of which the Association may well be proud. However, as meritorious as it is, those responsible for its future must assume that it can and should continue to improve. It is with this point of view that the Editorial Board will meet and lay out the policies to govern in the immediate future.

While the format of the JOURNAL and its special features are important, its status among periodicals will in large measure be determined by the quality of its leading articles. The editor and his associates will do their utmost to insure that each issue is made up of papers of high professional merit. Success in this direction will require, however, the fullest co-operation of all members of the A.A.C.R. We solicit your advice and assistance in all respects, but particularly in locating and obtaining manuscripts which measure up to the high standards set for the JOURNAL.

LEO M. CHAMBERLAIN

In an address before last summer's Institute for Administrative Officers of Higher Institutions, President J. Hillis Miller made—almost casually, and as if in passing—a profoundly significant remark. "Colleges," he said, "have no right to traffic carelessly in the lives of youth."

There is a place for that remark among the axioms of every registrar's office. With one voice, of course, we all plead "not guilty." Neither as individuals nor as institutions have we ever lapsed into carelessness in our day-by-day dealings with the lives of youth. Surely our concern for them could never be stigmatized as "traffick-

ing."

Well, almost never. Maybe now and then we have admitted a student who did not belong in college and whose academic career was sure to end in frustration and defeat. (Enrolments, of course, must be kept up.) Perhaps, once in a while, we have failed to protest at ferocious penalties inflicted for trivial offenses. (The Good Name of the college must be protected, and sometimes we must make an example of somebody.) Now and again we have insisted on a slavish conformity with the letter of a rule. (The rule is more important than the student. Or is it?) Our plea of "not guilty" may lack a little of the ring of conviction if we remember the times we were "too busy" to listen to a student, when in truth we were only too impatient or too irritated or too tired. As institutions, our dealing with the lives of youth descends to the level of trafficking every time we drop for low scholarship any student whom remedial training in tool subjects might have saved, or leave one baffled by problems which wise counseling would help him to solve.

It is not new to point out that the raw material of the college is human life and its end products are character and wisdom and leadership. Not new, but profoundly moving. For it lays upon the registrar, whose office is the clearing-house for so many of the college's activities, responsibilities, and privileges vouchsafed to but few.

"We have no right to traffic carelessly in the lives of youth."

W. C. SMYSER

For many years the secondary school principals and occasionally groups of registrars have been interested in the adoption of a uniform blank for the transfer of students from school to college. The gridiron sheet which is now so widely used is an expression of a continuing interest in this problem. To consider the adoption of such a form has been one of the major objectives of committees in several regional associations and the committee from the National Association of

Secondary School Principals.

Last year the Executive Committee of the American Association of Collegiate Registrars agreed to consider with a committee from the Principals' Association this proposal. President MacKinnon and Chairman Kerr of the Committee on Special Projects appointed the writer to represent the Association to the Committee on Cumulative Records of the American Council on Education. On February 22, upon the invitation of President Zook of the American Council on Education, a meeting was held at Atlantic City of representatives from the New England Association, the Middle States Association, the North Central Association, the Southern Association, the National Association of Secondary School Principals, the Committee on Records and Reports of the Progressive Education Association, the Committee on Cumulative Records of the American Council on Education, and the American Association of Collegiate Registrars. The discussion in this meeting indicated, first, that there is an increasing interest among states and regional groups in the development of uniform transfer blanks, and secondly, that the development of such a blank should be engaged in jointly by regional groups and those national bodies which would have the most influence in its adoption.

In a subsequent conference it was agreed by the Secondary School Principals that Dr. Zook should be asked to appoint a committee of seven or nine persons who would represent regional and national associations and who could elicit from the organizations which they represent a favorable response to the committee's actions. It was suggested further that the first meeting of this committee should be held in Chicago during the annual meeting of the American Association

of Collegiate Registrars.

The foregoing is in the nature of a report and would have no place in an editorial column unless accompanied by the following statements. The proposal for a uniform transfer blank meets with some objections because it does not provide for an expression of institutional needs. In a survey made of college application forms it was found that all blanks agreed on only one item. This was the name of the student. Some institutions did not even request his address. There is no doubt, however, that there are many common items which, if included in a transfer blank, would not only be more commonly used, but would

have value for institutional personnel work.

A uniform transfer blank has two advantages. It has an advantage for the secondary school principal because it greatly reduces the task of filling in college applications in a large school from which several hundred seniors apply for admission to almost as many institutions. If it is a forward looking form, it has an advantage for all the institutions which use it. The type of information which the blank requests, the method used for reporting that information, and the techniques employed for interpreting the data will focus the attention of colleges and secondary schools upon the more common progressive practices. It will encourage the personnel officers in colleges and secondary schools to record what should be known about the individual student and to interpret that which is recorded so that it will eventually redound to the student's advantage.

With these objectives in mind the American Association of Collegiate Registrars will welcome the opportunity to work with Dr.

Zook's committee.

MILLARD E. GLADFELTER

# THE QUESTION BOX

The Question Box offers to the readers of the JOURNAL an opportunity to exchange information on perplexing problems which are common to the daily routine of most registrars.

If you have helpful suggestions, will you please send them to the Editor. As rapidly as possible replies to the questions asked will be published under the Question Exchange. The answers to each of the following questions have been requested by readers of the JOURNAL:

- 1. What policy should be followed by an institution in issuing sealed and signed transcripts to students?
- 2. What consideration are institutions giving to credit for work completed in the C.A.A. program?
- 3. What are the general duties of the Dean and the Registrar in a Liberal Arts College?
- 4. What are the generally accepted standards for accepting students who are in the field of teaching?
- 5. Should the transcript contain a record of any disciplinary action regardless of its nature?
- 6. Is it the general policy for institutions to accept students in summer schools without recognizing their status in the institution they previously attended?
- 7. What is the simplest method for the registrar to furnish a list of students who are eligible for honor societies?
- 8. What methods are Liberal Arts Colleges using to follow the graduate school careers of their alumni?
- 9. What principles should govern respecting the use of student records by other administrative officers, advisers, members of the faculty, and their clerical assistants?
- 10. What emphasis should be placed upon grade averages in awarding honors?
- 11. What principles should govern in the numbering of courses?
- 12. What policies or procedures should be followed in furnishing scholarship averages for various campus groups and organizations?
- 13. When final marks are once recorded, to what extent and under what limitations should changes be made for errors or for other reasons?
- 14. What are the arguments for and against the preparation of the class schedule by the registrar, rather than by some other administrative officer?
- 15. Discuss the administration of an Evening College, including the registration procedure, getting class cards to instructors, securing transcripts, fees, dropping and adding courses, and reporting marks.

# QUESTION EXCHANGE

# The Evaluation of Foreign Transcripts

Miss Alina M. Lindegren, Office of Education, Department of the Interior, Washington, D.C., is a specialist in the evaluation of foreign transcripts. The service of the office is free of cost to educational institutions and I have found it to be prompt. The service includes copies of the records submitted in translation, as well as a statement of the evaluation.

DORA M. STRYKER
American International College

EDITOR'S NOTE: The service referred to above is made available through the Division of Comparative Education of the United States Office of Education, under the direction of Dr. J. F. Abel. The Division has recently announced an Exhibition of Foreign Student Credentials. The exhibits in this collection are photostat copies of certificates, diplomas, and degrees granted in foreign countries and sent by colleges and universities in the United States to the Office of Education for translation and evaluation. Forty-one different languages are used in these 300 or more documents and fifty-three countries are represented. The documents indicate all levels of instruction from primary schools to post-university studies, and many different kinds of vocational training. They range in dates of issuance from 1897 to 1939. They are selected from a collection of some 400 such copies made in the past 14 years from credentials sent to the Office of Education in connection with 10,000 cases of credential evaluation.

In the issue of the JOURNAL for October, 1938, there appears an article by Dr. Abel dealing with the evaluation of credentials from France. Note also the sixth article reviewed this month in the "In the JOURNALS" section.

#### Giving Students the Results of Psychological and Other Examinations

For an answer to this question, the reader is referred to the first article reviewed in this issue in the "In the JOURNALS" section.

## Principles Governing Catalog Construction

The reader is referred to the following articles which have appeared recently in the JOURNAL: Millard E. Gladfelter, An Evaluation of Several College Catalogs, April, 1938, and Sister Mary Vivian, College Catalogs—Their Content and Distribution, October, 1938. The latter includes a bibliography.

#### The Evaluation of Credits from Nurses' Training Schools

About five years ago, the University of Kentucky began to offer courses in public health, which attracted graduate nurses as well as public health officers. This resulted in an increasing demand for the evaluation of nurses' training in terms of college credit. In view of the fact that our College of Arts and Sciences will accept as many as 30 semester hours of professional credit toward the A.B. or B.S. degree, that college has approved the acceptance of a like amount of credit for nurses' training, under the following conditions:

1. The applicant must present evidence of having met our full entrance requirements prior to entering upon nurses' training, and evidence of graduation from a fully approved nurses' training school. The transcripts of credit must be sent direct from each school from which the applicant has been graduated, and in the case of the hospital work, the report must be made on a form prepared especially for that purpose. This transcript must show the hours in theory and practice with the theory divided into class and laboratory.

Credits which can readily be identified in terms of courses given at the University are given credit form and so recorded. The remainder of the 30 semester

credits is recorded as "Nursing Theory and Practice."

The approved list of hospitals and nursing schools is restricted to those schools, the programs of which cover thirty-six months, and which appear on the List of Schools of Nursing Meeting Minimum Requirements Set by Law in the Various States. This list is published by the National League of Nursing Education, 50 West 50th Street, New York City.

MAPLE MOORES
Assistant Registrar
University of Kentucky

#### REPORTED TO US

R. R. B. Thompson has been named Registrar of the University of Utah, succeeding the late E. J. Norton. Dr. Thompson, who was formerly instructor in elementary education at the William M. Stewart Training School, was graduated from the University of Nebraska in 1933, and obtained his Ph.D. degree from that University in 1939. Before coming to Utah, he taught in several Nebraska grade and high schools.

We report with regret the death of Rodney M. West on March 5, as a result of a cerebral hemorrhage. Mr. West had been Registrar at the University of Wisconsin since 1920 and had been prominent throughout this period in the activities of the A.A.C.R. He served as President of the Association in 1927. He was this year a member of the Board of Editors of the JOURNAL, and had been appointed by President MacKinnon as a member of the Nominating Committee for the Chicago Convention.

Miss Helen M. Allison, Associate Registrar, University of Western Ontario, is on leave of absence for the academic year, 1940-41, pursuing graduate work in the University of Minnesota.

K. P. R. Neville, Registrar, University of Western Ontario, was the official representative of the National Conference of Canadian Universities at the meeting of the National Association of State Universities held in Chicago in November.

Miss Phyllis Shumaker from Fort Hays Kansas State College has been appointed assistant in the Registrar's Office of Berea College, Berea, Kentucky.

The eighteenth meeting of the Illinois Association of Collegiate Registrars was held at Augustana College at Rock Island, Illinois, on October 24 and 25, 1940. Mr. G. W. Swanbeck, Registrar, and the faculty of Augustana College were hosts to the Association. Forty-five members were present.

The program, which was in charge of Miss Agness Kaufman, President, was as follows:

Address "The Future of American Colleges" by Dr. Ralph W. Tyler, The University of Chicago.

Address "The Registrar as a Personnel Officer" by Dr. Frank Endicott, Northwestern University.

Address "The Effect of Current Trends on Regimentation in Colleges" by Dr. C. L. Clarke, Dean of Lewis Institute of Illinois Institute of Technology.

Address "The Value of Rank in the High School Graduating Class for Predicting Scholastic Achievement in College" by Mr. E. C. Seyler, Recorder, University of Illinois.

Address "The High School Student Looks Toward College" by Principal O. B. Wright, Rock Island High School.

Address "Selective Service and Its Relation to Youth" by Major A. K. Stiles, Rock Island Arsenal.

The following officers were elected for 1940-41:

President, Mr. E. C. Seyler, Recorder, University of Illinois

Vice-President, Mr. Asa Carter, Registrar, Bradley Polytechnic Institute, Peoria, Illinois

Secretary-Treasurer, Miss Blanche C. Thomas, Registrar, Eastern Illinois State Teachers College, Charleston, Illinois

The Maryland, District of Columbia, and Virginia section of the Mathematical Association of America held its fall meeting at Trinity College on December 7. Sister Catherine Dorothea, President of Trinity College, opened the meeting with an address of welcome in which she extended to the members of the association the hospitality of the college during their sessions. The speakers for the morning session were Michael Goldberg of the Navy Department, Dr. C. H. Dowker of Johns Hopkins University, F. G. Myers of the University of Virginia, and Professor Jacobson, also of Johns Hopkins University. Luncheon was served in the college dining hall. The afternoon session was devoted to discussions by Dr. R. B. Kershner of Johns Hopkins University, Professor E. J. Finan of Catholic University of America, and Commander P. V. H. Weems, retired officer of the United States Navy.

Dr. Walter C. Giersbach has been elected President of Pacific University, replacing Dr. John Francis Dobbs, resigned. On January 15 Pacific University observed its 92nd anniversary. Dr. Giersbach was the speaker at a banquet sponsored by the students and the service organizations of Forest Grove.

A Department of Library Science has been inaugurated at Western Maryland College with Edwin C. Mirise as the professor.

Two-year curricula for secretarial work, pre-nursing, medical technology and medical secretaries have been organized at Geneva College.

Sister Rosemary Hogan, O.S.B., M.A., has succeeded Sister Jerome Keeler, O.S.B., Ph.D., as Dean of Mount St. Scholastica College, Atchison, Kansas.

On May 19, 1941, Chico State College will observe the 100th anniversary of the arrival of General John Bidwell in Chico, California. General Bidwell was one of the pioneers who exerted great influence on the development of the natural resources of the state. The Old Bidwell Mansion and grounds are now a part of the college campus.

To obtain a greater co-operation between high schools and colleges in preparing secondary school students for higher education, Gettysburg College recently opened a new service center for high school principals and teachers of Central Pennsylvania and Maryland. The first clinic held was specifically designed to assist English teachers in co-ordinating the work in their field with that of institutions of higher learning. About 200 attended, and as a result of its success a similar service center in social sciences will probably be held in the near future. The plan was suggested by and has been worked out in co-operation with the Department of Secondary School Principals. One of the fundamental reasons for setting up such service centers was the necessity of reorganizing high school curricula with a view to the increased enrolment caused by the age limit in Pennsylvania attendance laws. (New York Times, February 16, 1941)

St. Norbert College at West De Pere, Wisconsin, is operating a unique plan which is designed to benefit both upperclassmen of the college and the inmates of the Wisconsin State Reformatory. Advanced students at the college, on their own time, teach courses in the regular high school curriculum to those inmates who care to take them either to complete their high school studies or merely to gain further information in whatever fields they are interested. The student instructors receive credit for practice teaching which may be applied to the requirements for a Wisconsin certificate.

The National Federation of Business and Professional Women's Clubs, a member organization of the Council of Guidance and Personnel Associations, announces an extensive list of publications dealing with vocational guidance for women. *Vocations for Women* is the title of a series of reprints of vocational articles which have appeared in the Federation's official magazine, *The Independent Woman*. These cover the fields of executive housekeeping, social work, statistical work, occupational therapy, aviation, official management, probation and parole work, penology, chemistry, nursing, accounting, fashion designing, and insurance.

Defense is the official weekly bulletin of the National Defense Advisory Commission, published in a new format beginning with the January 7, 1941, issue. It covers all subjects relating to government activities in national defense. Subscription prices are 75 cents for 52 issues; 25 cents for 13 issues; single copies, 5 cents. Obtainable from the Superintendent of Documents, Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C.

St. Francis College of Lafayette, Indiana, is in the process of integrating St. Elizabeth School of Nursing with the College. St. Francis is also looking forward to the erection of a Fine Arts Building which will facilitate a larger enrolment of adults in this important phase of education.

A new course, "Studies in the Present Crisis," has been offered to the students of Sweet Briar College for the second semester of the current academic year. This offering is an expression, on the academic level, of the same recognition of the needs of the present world crisis which already has led to the formation of a joint faculty and student committee on emergency service to plan ways in which a college community may intelligently and constructively contribute, in the field of extracurricular activities, to the national emergency and to co-ordinate efforts toward that end. (New York Times, February 16, 1941)

The New Economic Education will be the subject for the eighth annual Conference on Business Education held by the School of Business of the University of Chicago. Positive aspects of the approach to business and economic education from the viewpoint of consumer education will be discussed by speakers who are qualified by experience and research to present a true picture of the possibilities of this development. Sessions will be devoted to a critical examination of the meaning of the new economic education, its potentialities for the public school system, and its possible contributions to individual adjustment in economic situations. The final session will review the materials available for presenting the new economic education at different school levels—a session that will be of intense practical interest to all teachers of business and economic subjects.

The Conference will be held on Thursday and Friday, June 26 and 27, in Haskell Hall on the campus of the University of Chicago, and is an integral part of the summer program offered by the School of Business for teachers interested in securing advanced degrees in the field of business

education.

A detailed program of the conference and a list of the speakers will be available in the near future, and will be mailed to anyone interested.

Professor H. H. Armsby, Registrar and Student Adviser of the Missouri School of Mines and Metallurgy, has accepted a temporary call to Federal service in Washington, D.C. until July 1, as Field Co-ordinator in the Federal Security Agency Defense Training Program. Professor Armsby will be an Assistant to Dean R. A. Seaton, Director of Engineering Defense Training Courses under the United States Office of Education.

The position of Field Co-ordinator involves the responsibility of representing the Director of the Engineering Defense Training Program in the field; consulting with the Regional Advisers with respect to means and procedures for determining the needs of defense industries and federal agencies for individuals with particular types of professional engineering training; enlisting the co-operation of engineering schools in providing courses to meet these needs; and working with Regional Advisers in preventing

and eliminating friction between different schools in matters relating to the program.

Pennsylvania State College announces the establishment of The Ellen H. Richards Institute as a consolidated research unit to study certain aspects of the improvement of standards of living in the fields of food, clothing, and shelter, the Institute to be administered jointly by the School of Agriculture and the School of Chemistry and Physics. Dr. Pauline Beery Mack, who has been on the staff of the School of Chemistry and Physics at the Pennsylvania State College since 1919 and Director of Research in Home Economics at the College since 1935, will be the first Director of the Institute.

Recently a grant of \$25,000 by the General Education Board and a grant of \$9,000 by the Carnegie Foundation have been combined with the sum of \$41,000 provided by the University of Mississippi to create a fund to be used for the improvement of the University Library. All of the \$75,000 will be used for the purchase of books and periodicals. The regular additions will be made as usual.

Mr. C. E. Maxam has been appointed Registrar of Butler University, Indianapolis, Indiana. Mr. Maxam was formerly Director of Placement and retains this position, as well as assuming the duties of Registrar and Director of Admissions.

Registrar B. T. McGraw of Lincoln University, Missouri, has been appointed Special Part-Time Consultant on relevant French financial policies to the Defense Finance Section, Price Stabilization Division of the Advisory Commission to the Council on National Defense.

Miss Emma Fleer Muller, Director of Personnel and Registrar of Chicago Teachers College, has been elected President of the Illinois Association of Deans of Women.

The American Council on Education is sponsoring a meeting of representative high school principals and individuals representing institutions of higher learning who are interested in bringing about uniformity in the use of transfer blanks and in improving their quality. This meeting will be held at the Drake Hotel in Chicago on April 14-15, in connection with the Convention of the A.A.C.R. The Committee is made up of individuals who are working with the National Association of Secondary School Principals, the Committee on Personnel Record Forms of the American Council, the regional associations, and with certain other organizations which are known to be interested in the problem. The A.A.C.R. is represented on the committee by Millard E. Gladfelter of Temple University.

#### **BOOK REVIEWS**

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Professional Education for Experienced Teachers (The Program of the Summer Workshop), Heaton, Kenneth L., Camp, William G., and Diederich, Paul B., Chicago, University of Chicago Press, 1940, pp. x + 142.

Another title for this publication might well be "Progressive Methods Invade Teacher Education." It is written primarily for "teacher-educators in colleges and universities and those administrators and supervisors of instruction in local school districts who are concerned with the improvement of teachers in service." It is the unofficial publication of the Committee on Workshop of the Progressive Education Association and is designed to reach an audience not already acquainted with the workshop program. Since the writing of the report the workshop idea has been incorporated into the activities of the Commission on Teacher Education of the American Council on Education. The impetus thus given to this technique of in-service teacher education and the probable effect it will have on the graduate program for teachers sponsored by colleges and universities gives this volume the importance of timeliness.

This reviewer suggests an alternate title because the technique of the workshop is as different from the prevailing techniques of teacher education as the progressive elementary school contrasts with the conventional school for children.

The authors organize their report into five chapters: Since 1936, Essential Characteristics of the Program, Organization and Administration, The Effectiveness of Workshops, and The Significance of the Workshop Movement for Teacher Education.

The workshop was born in the summer of 1936 at Ohio State University out of the needs of the Eight-Year Study of the Commission on the Relation of School and College of the Progressive Education Association. In 1938 funds made available by the General Education Board helped finance four workshops open to teachers not associated with the Eight-Year Study.

By 1940 the program had expanded to include teachers in liberal arts colleges, as well as those from public and private elementary and secondary schools, to comprise the active participation of graduate schools from fourteen colleges and universities, and to include six school district centers in co-operation with nearby universities.

Seven essential characteristics of the workshop have developed out of five years of experimentation. These stated briefly are: (1) Each participant selects an area for study which has arisen out of his experience as a teacher; (2) he shares in planning a program of activity designed to meet his needs; (3) he is provided with easy access to the services of various

specialists; (4) easy and frequent association with other participants of varied backgrounds is made possible; (5) "an effort is made to interest the participant in the whole child, the whole school, and the whole community;" (6) his total experience as he attempts to solve his special problem also prepares him for the solution of other professional problems in the future; (7) efforts are made to afford balanced living on the part of the participant and this contributes to his personal as well as professional development.

Instead of a periodic lecture or discussion group at which the professor in charge dominates, the workshop program is organized around (1) individual advisory conferences, (2) major work group, (3) request group, (4) general meetings, (5) school and school district groups, (6) individual activities, (7) informal group activities, and (8) program planning and staff conferences. Obviously the selection of a staff with the intelligence and wisdom to guide rather than dominate, to stimulate rather than coerce, to draw out rather than pour in, is the most important and most difficult of those in charge.

The authors devote one third of the space of the report to a justification of the workshop as a device for teacher-in-service education. The techniques used are defensible although not objective in the light of accepted research practice. But it is doubtful whether any program of education in effect for such a short time can be evaluated objectively and show advantages which are statistically sound.

This, in the opinion of the reviewer, is not important at this stage of a new movement. No one who can not accept the fundamental tenets of the progressive movement can be convinced of its superiority by being shown "proof" of any kind now possible with the course measuring devices available. It is better therefore to expend one's energies improving the techniques than trying to justify the results. In spite of this opinion of the reviewer, the reader will find the chapter on Effectiveness interesting and worth reading.

The authors do not exhibit the usual zeal of the reformer in predicting the future of the workshop idea. Instead they are modest in their claims and prophesy. The questions which they posit, the answers to which they claim will determine the future of the workshop program, show a student's attitude toward the problem.

This reviewer has seen the summer workshop in action, he has seen teachers and principals resume their professional activities after a summer at a workshop, he has seen the product of four of these summer centers. He is convinced that the principle embodied therein is destined to make fundamental changes in our teacher education, pre-service as well as in-service. But having been engaged in teacher education for more than fifteen years and knowing the difficulty with which college teachers can make an adjustment to a new way of doing things, this reviewer is also convinced

that the relative effectiveness of the workshop program will grow less as its increase in popularity thins out the quality of its leadership.

It is therefore doubly important that those who contemplate the organization of a workshop program, because it is the smart thing to do, study well the report of Heaton et al. before they venture into the new field. For when the fundamental principle of the workshop as narrated by these authors is once understood, a new approach to teacher education has been mastered. But the skill with which the program will be administered will depend on how much intelligence, resourcefulness, perseverance, and extra time in planning is available.

Jos. S. Butterweck Teachers College, Temple University

A Handbook on the Anecdotal Behavior Journal, Jarvie, L. L., and Ellingson, Mark, Chicago, University of Chicago Press, 1940, pp. xii + 67.

The usual method of evaluating students in personnel records by means of "trait ratings" is open to criticism. It is based on the erroneous assumption that a given trait is constant in all situations, whereas, for instance, "a person may be quite dependable in keeping appointments and a trial to his friends with respect to answering letters." Moreover, any rating which relies heavily upon subjective impressions is open to question, since prejudice and personal bias may play too large a part. As an alternative, to supplement the usual rating scale but not to displace it, counselors have been impressed by the value of recorded anecdotes illustrating personality traits and defects—anecdotes which teachers everywhere exchange when discussing students, because they form the basis and the justification of judgments formed, as well as the surest guide to effective counseling.

At the Rochester Athenaeum and Mechanics Institute, where Mr. Ellingson is President and Mr. Jarvie is Chairman of the Educational Research Committee, a very thoroughgoing plan has been worked out for the most effective use of the *Anecdetal Behavior Journal*, and a careful study made of its application to counseling. This book is a report on that study, but, more than that, it is a stimulating and suggestive handbook for counselors. Both values and shortcomings of anecdotal records are pointed out, and there is outlined a constructive program for the installation of such records—teaching a faculty to select and record anecdotes and the counselors how to use them, and to base upon them practical individual programs for personal and intellectual growth.

The anecdotal record is conceivably far too cumbersome for adoption on many campuses. Nevertheless, any counselor and any registrar, interested in a practical counseling program, will in every case find much that is valuable in this comprehensive book.

W. C. SMYSER
Miami University

How to Counsel Students, Williamson, E. G., New York, McGraw-Hill, 1939, pp. xx + 562.

Here is a well-organized, rather voluminous, but practical book based upon the author's many years of experience and research in the field of student personnel. It is primarily designed as a textbook for a graduate clinic course for training counselors. Secondly, it is of use as a guide for in-service counselors. It avoids all theory and philosphical arguments and considers the adjustment problems of high school and college students in a realistic manner, a manner designed to allow the graduate student in clinical counseling to see what to do when encountering certain broad types of cases. It is not in any way, however, intended to be a reference book in which the counselor may turn to a certain page and read the treatment necessary for the case of John Jones. As Dr. Williamson points out, a complete volume could be written on a particular counselee. Thus recognizing the Gargantuan task required if one were to cover all the individual problems, the author limits himself to the broader, more general types of adjustments which most frequently have to be made by the high school or college student and suggests possible methods of treatment for each difficulty.

For the sake of organization, but not for any psychological reasons, How to Counsel Students is divided into six sections. Part I, An Outline of Clinical Techniques, gives a rapid survey of the development of student personnel in education, the role of the clinical counselor in this field, the analytical, diagnostic, and counseling techniques encountered, and finally a summary of facts necessary to the better understanding of the student. The remainder of the book under five general headings is devoted to the more specific adjustments faced by students. These five divisions are: Personality Problems, Problems of Educational Orientation and Achievement, Problems of Occupational Orientation, Financial Problems, and Health Problems. A standard procedure is followed in presenting each; viz., description, incidence, causes, analysis and diagnosis, counseling techniques, and prevention. The author draws not only upon his own experience and research but also upon the research of others to present in a clear, concise manner the various adjustment problems. He offers no specific formula or any particular cure but describes the symptoms, indicates possible causes, and discards many ideas and suggestions for analyzing, diagnosing and counseling.

For the graduate student this is an excellent textbook for a course in training clinical counselors. For the practising counselor it is an ideal "refresher," recalling to mind individual cases previously encountered, citing research and references on special problems which one might wish to study further, and giving a quick review of the clinical counseling field.

For the registrar Part I, An Outline of Clinical Techniques, is probably the most interesting and most valuable. The values as well as the short-comings of grades and records are described. The counselor's use of such records is indicated. To all other student personnel officers this section of the book suggests the need for co-ordination and portrays the part clinical counseling plays in working with other agencies, for the better development of the individual. It should do much in clearing up misconceptions of what clinical counseling is and the place it should have in the educational world. It should be of great benefit in helping the registrar see his relationship to the counselor and to suggest how each may complement the other.

SYDNEY F. AUSTIN
University Counseling Service
Miami University

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Student Personnel Services in Colleges and Universities, Russell, John Dale, Editor, Chicago, University of Chicago Press, 1941, pp. ix + 300.

This volume comprises the Proceedings of the 1940 Institute for Administrative Officers of Higher Institutions, and is the twelfth of the series of such proceedings. In sponsoring the Institute, the University of Chicago

is making a notable contribution to higher education.

As the present title suggests, the program of last summer's institute was built around the central theme of the personnel program. To quote from the Preface, "It was believed that present interest in the subject warranted the devoting of the entire time of one annual Institute to the manifold problems involved in maintaining effective personnel services for students in a modern institution of higher education. The six half-day sessions . . . were assigned respectively to the following phases of the general subject: (1) the obligation of the institution to its students; (2) administrative organization for student personnel services; (3) institutional provisions for understanding students; (4) interpretation and use of data in counseling students; (5) the extra-classroom life of the student; and (6) evaluations of student personnel services."

Such an outline indicates how comprehensively the field is covered, and the list of contributors is sufficient guarantee of the authority with which they speak. The chapters deal with the need for personnel services (a) BOOK REVIEWS

in a small college and (b) in universities; with the administrative organization of these services in such representative institutions as Minnesota, Chicago, Northwestern, Antioch, and the La-Salle-Peru-Oglesby Junior College; with materials and methods used in diagnosis and counseling; with such phases of institutional problems as housing, employment, student government, and extracurricular activities; and lastly with the objective evaluation of personnel services and the principles involved in such evaluation.

Because so much is just now being said about it, personnel work as such is in some danger of being classed by many people as a sort of fad, like technocracy or nudism. The fact is, of course, that most of the personnel services are not new, and that that which is new about them is no fad. They spring out of the acceptance by most colleges of responsibility for developing the student as a total personality, and not merely for training his mind and enlarging his stock of information. They hold the answer to many educational perplexities, and they promise richer returns to the student from his educational venture. But they must be co-ordinated, protected from extremists, and placed in their proper relation to the other phases of the colleges' activities. Such a task challenges the best we can bring to it, and is likely to occupy much of the attention of many registrars. To anyone who has questions to ask about the personnel services—what they are, how they are organized and conducted, what is their value to the student and the college—this scholarly symposium will provide a valuable text.

W. C. SMYSER
Miami University

The Nineteen-Forty Mental Measurements Yearbook, Buros, Oscar K., Editor, The Mental Measurements Yearbook, Highland Park, N.J., 1941, pp. 674 + xxiii.

In 1935 Dr. Buros prepared a 44-page "non-critical bibliography" of tests and mental measurements. In strong contrast appears this 697-page volume of 1940. This growth in size has been accompanied by equivalent growth in usefulness and significance.

This issue is truly a co-operative enterprise. Two hundred and fifty reviewers assisted in providing four hundred and three critical and descriptive reviews of tests. Editors and authors granted permission to quote from book reviews and articles; the American Council on Education and the Works Progress Administration assisted financially.

The first section of the book, which "supplements but does not supersede" previous issues, lists "practically all tests" published up to October, 1940. It supplies information concerning costs, applicability, and publishers. In addition, a list of references to articles or books treating the construction, validation, and use of each test is provided.

These entries are followed by reviews especially contributed for this volume by persons considered expert in the field, or by quotations from reviews published previously and quoted by permission, or both. The tests have been classified for listing under captions describing functions and areas.

The second portion of the book, "Books and Book Reviews," attempts "to make readily available" a bibliography of "recent books published in all English-speaking countries" concerning "measurements and closely associated fields" and to "provide evaluative excerpts from book reviews" calculated to assist the student.

Manifestly, this is a very useful book. The bibliographical aids and lists of tests alone would justify it. However, it must be used with discrimination. The editor has attempted to secure reviews from qualified persons, and certainly the list of reviewers includes many names which demand respect. But one must remember that these reviews are opinions and that many of these opinions rest simply upon analyses. No other method was possible, but the fact is unaltered. Occasionally one finds disagreement in reviews of a given test. Moreover, Dr. Buros attempted deliberately to secure reviews "from persons representing a wide variety of viewpoints" and fields of activity. Absolute agreement should not be expected or desired, in such circumstances. However, the very nature of the book demands that one use it as a source book of opinion concerning tests and their uses, rather than as factual material describing them.

Probably catholicity of opinion would have been approached more closely if more elementary and secondary school teachers or principals had been requested to express opinions. Universities and colleges provide most of the reviewers, and when one does find a public school person in the list he is usually in an administrative office, not a teacher. We should be told more about tests by the ultimate consumers. Some day, perhaps, we shall consider tests useful or useless according to their proved diagnostic or predictive value, not simply because of theoretical considerations. This is not to be construed as a severely adverse criticism of this volume, but it is a statement of its limitation. In fact, it is a limitation inherent in much of the work in measurement. We are frequently too prone to believe that high reliability guarantees usefulness, just as we too frequently assume that an expression of opinion about a test is a statement of fact, if that opinion emanates from a respected source. However, if one remembers these limitations, and uses this carefully prepared and excellently printed volume accordingly, he should find it an almost invaluable reference work upon which the editor is to be congratulated and for which he deserves thanks and praise.

J. CONRAD SEEGERS
Professor of Elementary Education
and Dean of Men, Temple University.

# IN THE JOURNALS

"Informing College Freshmen of Their Scholastic Aptitude Test Scores," R. K. Compton. *School and Society*, Vol. 53, No. 1359, January 11, 1941, p. 62.

Replies to a questionnaire from 331 institutions dealt with the question, "Should college freshmen be informed of their scores on the *American Council on Education Psychological Examination?*" A total of more than 75,000 students was concerned.

One hundred sixty-eight schools gave none of the students their exact percentile scores, but a few schools gave some of the students the information in a general way. Only eighty-one schools kept the results strictly within the administration. There were twenty-one schools that gave all of the freshmen their exact percentile scores. There were five schools that gave all of the freshmen their general positions in the score distribution, and twelve gave the highest ten per cent their exact percentile scores and the others, their approximate standings. In general where the student was given his score, he received an interpretation of the score and fairly adequate guidance. In terms of students, 15,140 or about one-fifth were informed of their percentile ranks, while 12,296 or about one-sixth were given their quartile ranks.

One hundred seventy-nine psychologists were asked if they favored giving all students their test scores. Sixteen replied with an unqualified "yes", forty-one with a qualified "yes", forty-two with an unqualified "no" and forty-eight with a qualified "no." In answering the question, "Should such information be given in special cases?" a very large number gave an affirmative reply.

"Requirements for Masters' Degrees for Students in Education," J. Minor Gwynn and William T. Gruhn. *School and Society*, Vol. 53, No. 1360, January 18, 1941, p. 93.

A questionnaire was sent to thirty-three members of the Association of American Universities to secure information relative to the requirements that concern the reading knowledge of foreign languages, the preparation of a thesis, the semester hours of credit required, and the transfer of credits from other institutions.

The reports present the findings for both the regular master's degree, such as the Master of Arts or the Master of Science, and the professional degrees in education such as the Master of Education and the Master of Arts in Education.

Concerning the regular master's degree, a foreign language is not required in more than half of the schools. At more than half of the institutions a thesis is not required. Instead, either seminary papers or additional seminary papers or additional seminary papers or additional seminary papers.

tional courses or both are required. The number of semester hours required ranges from twenty-four to thirty. At more than half of the schools some provision is made for transferring credit with some restrictions as to the number of hours that may be transferred.

In more than half of the institutions special masters' degrees in education are granted. In only one school is a foreign language required. About one-half of the schools require either a thesis or seminar paper. At most of the schools the special degrees are conferred by the graduate school rather than the school or college of education.

"Pre-training Selection of Teachers during 1937-1939." R. H. Eliassen and Robert L. Martin. *Educational Administration and Supervision*, Vol. XXVI, No. 7, October, 1940, p. 481.

During 1937-1939, forty-two articles and studies on pre-training selection of teachers appeared in current publications. These constitute the basis for this article which summarizes the studies, outlines the trends, and offers recommendations for further work on this topic. Investigators have tested a large number of factors related to teaching success, but no conclusive evidence is as yet available. The forty-two articles report twenty-five factors in predicting success. Some rather definite trends in the pre-selection and training of teachers are noted in the literature. Educators are rapidly discarding the belief that there is one single factor which will predict teaching success. They conclude that the greatest predictive value can be obtained only from a combination of several measures. Investigators are attempting to discover and measure certain intangibles such as character, emotionality, determination, ambition, interest, and the like.

One definite trend is toward state selection of qualified candidates for teaching. Another trend is the use of guidance programs at the secondary school level, a plan used in Vermont. Twenty-four states now have directors of teacher training who co-ordinate the state departments and teacher-training schools in setting up policies and standards for admission. Several recommendations for the improvement of teacher selection are given. Superior high school students must be interested in the field of education, more rigid state supervision must be followed and, beginning in public elementary schools, provision should be made for a system of cumu-

lative records

The authors list eighteen conclusions from their review of the articles. Among these are (6) Intelligence is the highest single factor associated with teaching ability, (10) Mental hygiene is neglected, (13) Teacher-training institutions do not attract the best type of students, (18) From available data at the present time pre-service prediction of teaching ability appears to be largely a question of opinion.

"The Problem of Adequate Evaluation of the College Student's Achievement." Edna E. Lamson. *Educational Administration and Supervision*, Vol. XXVI, No. 7, October, 1940, p. 493.

This is a summary of thirty-three studies appearing from 1930 through 1938 regarding the basis for assigning marks to student achievement. The studies show that there is need for the formulation of a philosophy of assignment of grades for student achievement. The substitution of the letter scheme for the old percentage scheme has resulted in less accurate marking by a large proportion of instructors on all levels. There is a need for the formulation of standards for each course and the meaning of grades should be defined. Three instances are reported where students receive copies of the meaning of each grade assigned. The function of examinations and their improvement are discussed. There are also given various systems employed for the distribution of grades. One report gives a plan followed in terms of small and large class enrolments. Several studies deal with failures and plans followed in the case of the less gifted student.

"Doctors' Theses Under Way in Education 1940-41." Carter V. Good. *Journal of Educational Research*, Vol. XXXIV, No. 5, January, 1941, p. 367.

This is a summary of 626 theses in education from forty-four institutions, and is the eleventh annual list to be published by the *Journal of Educational Research*. The list is first summarized by topics and then alphabetically according to author. Mention is made that completed theses may be discovered through the annual bibliographies of research in education, published by the United States Office of Education, and through *Doctoral Dissertations Accepted by American Universities*, published annually by the H. W. Wilson Company.

"Foreign Student Credentials." James F. Abel, School Life, Vol. 26, No. 4, January, 1941, p. 98.

James F. Abel, Chief of the Comparative Education Division in the United States Office of Education, outlines the work of his department in evaluating credentials of students from foreign countries. More than 10,000 cases have been handled by this department since its beginning. This is an indication of the service that this office is in a position to render registrars who receive credentials from foreign institutions.

"The Absence Problem in Undergraduate Colleges." Earl F. Sykes. Educational Administration and Supervision, Vol. XXVI, No. 7, October, 1940, p. 541.

The author first offers an analysis of the practices followed in general

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in the matter of absences and then outlines the plan adopted at the State Teachers College, West Chester, Pennsylvania. Some of the elements of the plan are as follows. The first three absences are handled by the faculty member involved, unless the latter deems it advisable to refer the case to the Dean of Instruction. Beyond the third absence, the student is required to present to the instructor either a certificate of illness or a readmission blank from the Dean of Instruction. The Dean of Instruction is empowered to deal with cases as he deems advisable. The only report of absences by instructors consists of the information regarding attendance provided on the class rolls turned in to the Dean of Instruction at the close of each six weeks' period and at the end of the semester. After a trial period the plan is to be evaluated by both the faculty and the administrative staff.

"The Relationship of Age, Experience, Formal Preparation and Marriage of College and University Professors While Becoming Established in the Profession." Earle Connette. *Journal of Educational Research*, Vol. XXXIV, No. 5, January, 1941, p. 327.

A study was made of 500 professors listed in Who's Who in America with a check on an additional list of one hundred to determine the reliability of the data. The purpose was to answer such questions as the following: (1) Have successful professors delayed marriage until after their formal education was complete? (2) Did they obtain their professorships after an apprenticeship in the public schools or other institutions below college or university? and (3) Were the advanced degrees obtained before or after entering college teaching, and what was the status in the profession at the time of marriage and at the time these advanced degrees were obtained. The findings were given in several tables and the conclusions were:

- 1. Successful professors have delayed marriage until after their formal education was completed.
- 2. They did not obtain their professorships until after advanced degrees were obtained.
- They did not serve an apprenticeship in the public schools or other educational institutions of grade level lower than that of the college or university.

The Education of a Teacher. Harold E. B. Speight, Secretary, Committee on Teacher Education of the Association of Colleges and Universities of the State of New York, 171 Goldwin Smith Hall, Cornell University, Ithaca, N.Y. 15 p.

This pamphlet, obtainable from the secretary, represents some of the

work of the Committee on Teacher Education of the Association of Colleges and Universities of the State of New York. The committee has received a grant from the Commission on Teacher Education of the American Council on Education, which is carrying on a program under a subsidy from the General Education Board. The Commission is co-ordinating activities in twenty colleges and universities and fourteen public school systems, representing all types of teacher education, and in three all-state programs (New York, Michigan, and Georgia). This report presents three topics: The Teacher's Responsibility to Society; The Teacher's Responsibility to the Pupil; and The Teacher's Responsibility to the Profession. Each topic is summarized in respect to its implications for teacher education. Those who are concerned with teacher training will find this publication worth while, and will anticipate further reports from this Commission.

"Professional Ethics—A Code for Administrators." Ward G. Reeder. The Nation's Schools, Vol. 27, No. 1, January, 1941, p. 50.

While this is a proposed code of ethics for public school administrators, there are many sections that apply to administrators in general. The author presents a study of unethical practices as reported by approximately 1,600 teachers. The ten practices most frequently mentioned are listed in the following order: gossiping about and criticizing other teachers; slurring the profession; breaking of contracts; applying for positions not known to be vacant; exaggerating qualifications and failing to give all pertinent facts in writing recommendations; cultivating friendships among school officials and their families in an attempt to exercise a "pull"; failure to be a progressive student of education; failure to support school policies until they are changed; underbidding for a position; going over the head of an administrative superior.

"Ninth Educational Conference." The Educational Record, Vol. XXII, Supplement No. 14, January, 1941.

The January, 1941 issue of *The Educational Record* contains so many topics of interest to college faculties and administrators that space does not permit a review of them. Attention is called to several of the articles such as "Education and National Defense" by Floyd W. Reeves, "Work Camps and Education" by Kenneth Holland, "The Role of Examinations in Teacher Selection" by Carroll R. Reed, "The Growth and Decline of Intelligence," by George D. Stoddard, "The Private School and College—Their Necessity," by Dixon Ryan Fox, and "An Appraisal of the Eight-Year Study of the Progressive Education Association," by Burton P. Fowler.

"Self-Counseling for the College Student." Jack W. Dunlap. The Journal of Higher Education, Vol. XI, No. 9, December, 1940. p. 486.

This is a summary of the procedures followed at the University of Rochester in its counseling program. In general it is a combination of employing a trained staff of counselors and furnishing the students with objective data on which they may base their own decisions. Objective data is secured during the first week of the freshman year, at the beginning of the second semester of the sophomore year, and at the beginning of the second semester of the senior year. A list of the various tests used may be obtained from the author. The article outlines the methods followed in the use of the tests and the procedures used in assisting the students and counselors in the interpretation of the data.

"Music in Liberal Arts." Earl Enyeart Harper. The North Central Association Quarterly, Vol. XV, No. 3, January, 1941, p. 265.

This is an excellent article dealing with music in colleges and universities. The author reviews the evolution of music in colleges from the time it was offered only in a separate institution standing alongside the college until today when it is taught in a recognized department of the institution. After presenting the place of music in the contemporary scheme of education, he gives several reasons why this art should be regarded with great interest and favor by the liberal arts educator. With respect to the economic aspect of music, he points out that 2.26 per cent of all persons gainfully employed are in the four fine arts, with the great majority in music. The college administrator will be further interested in this article as it includes material on the curriculum, requirements for degrees, qualifications of heads of music departments and faculty members, financial problems of music education, and other matters pertaining to the integration of music with the entire liberal arts program.

"Deliberative Committee Reports of 1940." William G. Carr. School and Society, Vol. 53, No. 1363, February 8, 1941, p. 164.

This is the seventh annual compilation of deliberative committee reports in education by national groups. It gives the titles of the studies and where they may be obtained. The reports are grouped under such headings as "Aims and Social Background," "Administration and Finance," "Teacher Personnel," "Pupil Personnel," and "Instruction—Materials and Methods."

# Program

Twenty-Ninth Convention

American Association of Collegiate Registrars

April 14-17, 1941 The Drake Hotel Chicago, Illinois The University of Chicago, which is celebrating throughout the year 1940-41 the Fiftieth Anniversary of its Foundation, extends a cordial greeting to the American Association of Collegiate Registrars in convention in Chicago. We rejoice with you in the freedom of American institutions of learning and we share with you the determination vigorously to defend the principles of freedom, justice, and truth which are the vital forces of the nation and the hope of the world. During the year the University will have on display a number of special exhibits. We cordially invite you to the Quadrangles to view them.

ROBERT M. HUTCHINS
President of the University

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# Monday, April 14, 1941

2:00 P.M.

# EXECUTIVE COMMITTEE MEETING

7:30-10:00 P.M.

# REGISTRATION OF DELEGATES AND GUESTS Tower Room—Main Floor 8:30-10:00 P.M.

#### INFORMAL RECEPTION FOR DELEGATES AND GUESTS

Gold Ball Room-Main Floor

Tuesday, April 15, 1941

9:00 A.M.

WIVES' BREAKFAST Room C—East Mezzanine Floor

9:30-11:30 A.M.

GENERAL SESSION

Gold Ball Room-Main Floor

MR. J. C. MACKINNON

Massachusetts Institute of Technology Presiding Address of Welcome-Dr. Franklyn Bliss Snyder, President, Northwestern University

Higher Education and National Defense—Dr. CLARENCE ADDISON DYKSTRA, Director, Selective Service System

DR. CLARENCE STEPHENS MARSH, Vice-President, American Council on Education

#### 12:45 P.M.

#### LUNCHEON, THE UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO

Address—Dr. Frederic Woodward, Director, The Fiftieth Anniversary Celebration, The University of Chicago

#### 2:15-3:45 P.M.

#### EXHIBITS AND TOURS—THE UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO

TEA AS GUESTS OF THE UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO Ida Noyes Hall

or

2:15 P.M.

#### SIGHT-SEEING TOUR—CITY OF CHICAGO

Bus leaves from the University and returns to the Drake Hotel

6:45 P.M.

ANNUAL DINNER

(Dress Informal)

Gold Ball Room-Main Floor

Mr. George P. Tuttle University of Illinois Toastmaster

Paper—Early History of the Association—E. B. Pierce, University of Minnesota Dinner Address—A Political Pilgrimage—Dr. Thomas Vernor Smith, Professor of Philosophy, The University of Chicago Music—DePaul University Madrigal Singers

Wednesday, April 16, 1941

9:30-11:45 A.M.

GENERAL SESSION

Gold Ball Room-Main Floor

Mr. F. H. HAGEMEYER
Teachers College, Columbia University
Presiding

Trends in Higher Education—Dr. GEORGE ALAN WORKS, Dean of Students and University Examiner, The University of Chicago

The Various Preparatory Functions of the Junior College—Dr. J. Anthony Humphreys, Registrar and Director of Personnel, Woodrow Wilson Junior College Question Box—Mr. Robert L. Williams, Assistant Registrar, University of Michigan

Election of Officers

2:00-3:30 P.M.

SECTIONAL MEETINGS

A. Universities French Room—Main Floor

> MR. J. P. MITCHELL Stanford University Presiding

National Youth Administration Policies Credit for Service in the Army or Navy Credentials from South American Institutions New Methods for Preparation of Transcripts

> B. Colleges of Liberal Arts and State Teachers Colleges Gold Ball Room—Main Floor

> > MISS CARRIE M. PROBST Goucher College Presiding

Pre-registration—Time, Preparation for, Procedures
The Comprehensive Examination in the Major Field—Relation to Course Work,
Weight of Grade, and Discipline for Unsatisfactory Results
Curriculum Changes in Teachers Colleges—In Eastern, Southern, Central, and West-

ern Areas

Leisure-Time Activities—How Planned, Recognized, and Recorded The Refugee Student—Evaluation of Credits, Financial Aid, Adjustment

> C. Technical and Professional Schools Room C—East Mezzanine Floor

> > Mr. J. R. SAGE Iowa State College Presiding

Topics to be announced

D. Junior Colleges Rooms F and G—East Mezzanine Floor

> MR. W. J. MOBERG North Park College Presiding

Academic Standards of Terminal Curricula—Mr. J. M. McCallister, Herzl Junior College

The Transfer of Students in Terminal Curricula—Mr. W. H. Smith, Copiah-Lincoln Junior College

The Transfer of Students in Pre-Professional Curricula—Mr. R. W. Brewster, Schuylkill Undergraduate Center of The Pennsylvania State College
The Transfer of Credit in Survey Courses—Miss Alice J. Griffin, Wright Junior College

4:00 P.M.

TEA AS GUESTS OF NORTHWESTERN UNIVERSITY
Abbott Hall—Downtown Campus

7:30-9:00 P.M.

FORUM FOR NEW REGISTRARS Gold Ball Room—Main Floor

> Mr. J. A. GANNETT University of Maine Presiding

Thursday, April 17, 1941

9:30-11:00 A.M.

GENERAL SESSION
Gold Ball Room—Main Floor

MISS MARY A. ROBERTSON University of Alabama Presiding

Open Forum-MR. E. J. HOWELL, Agr. & Mech. College of Texas

11:00 A.M.-12:30 P.M.

#### BUSINESS SESSION

Gold Ball Room-Main Floor

Reports of Standing Committees: Executive Committee, Budget Committee, Committee on Special Projects, Regional Associations Committee, Committee on Office Forms and Equipment, Committee on Convention Exhibitors.

Reports of Association Officers: Editor of the JOURNAL, Second Vice-President, Treasurer.

Reports of Special Committees: Committee on Local Arrangements, Committee on Resolutions.

New Business

Introduction of New President

Announcement of Place for Next Convention

Adjournment

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Notices will be inserted in the order of their receipt.

Rates: For four insertions, limited to not more than fifty words, including the address, two dollars. Additional insertions at the regular rate. Extra space will be charged at the rate of five cents a word.

In printing these advertisements the Association assumes no obligation as to qualifications of prospective employees or of responsibility of employers.

In making this page available to those seeking personnel and to those seeking employment, the association expects that at least some reply will be made to all those answering announcements.

Position Wanted:—Young woman desires position in administrative office. Has had six years' experience as secretary to the Registrar and as Recorder of a State University. Is now secretary to Treasurer of a manufacturing company but is anxious to get back into a college, Reply to LF, Care Editor, Registrar's Office, University of Kentucky, Lextington. (4)

Position Wanted:—Young woman desires position as Registrar, Recorder, Secretary or Certificate Clerk, in accredited college or university. B.A. (Honor Graduate), State Permanent Certificate, 1918; M.A., 1926. Major, English; minors, Education and French. Sixteen consecutive years of successful experience in local, standard university serving in above capacity. Reply IRV, Care Editor, Registrar's Office, University of Kentucky, Lexington. (4)

ADVANCEMENT WANTED:—Young, married man, 32, four years' experience as registrar in denominational college of 900 students, also dean of men 1940-41, desires position of registrar in more stable institution. B.A. and M.A. degrees in Education. Reply C, Care Editor, Registrar's Office, University of Kentucky, Lexington. (3)

POSITION WANTED:—Man, 49, desires position as teacher on college level in History (European and American) one or two courses only. Wishes to teach mornings in Metropolitan area of New York. M.A. degree, Columbia University. Reply FW, Care Editor, Registrar's Office, University of Kentucky, Lexington. (2)

POSITION WANTED:—College professor in Economics and Accounting, with Ph.B. and M.A. degrees, desires position as Registrar. Already experienced in registrarial work. Qualified for Bursar, Recorder, Examiner, or Accountant's office. Good references. Excellent reason for changing positions and type of work. Reply MH, Care Editor, Registrar's Office, University of Kentucky, Lexington. (2)

Position Wanted:—Young woman interested in position as Registrar or Assistant Registrar. B.S., 1930. Year 1940-41, taking College and University Administration, Curriculum, Personnel, and Finance, University of Chicago. Ten years' experience in a State College: one, secretary to Dean; three, clerk, Registrar's Office; five, Assistant Registrar. Reply ML, Care Editor, Registrar's Office, University of Kentucky, Lexington. (1)

Position Wanted:—Woman, 42, desires position as Director of Admissions or Dean of Freshmen. Sixteen years' experience as a Registrar. Reply B, Care Editor, Registrar's Office, University of Kentucky, Lexington. (1)

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